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THE
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A JOURNAL OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH

IN

ARCHÆOLOGY, EPIGRAPHY, ETHNOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, FOLKLORE, LANGUAGES,
LITERATURE, NUMISMATICS, PHILOSOPHY, RELIGION &c., &c.,

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ERRATA IN VOL. XXI.

p. 157, line 26, <i>for</i> and "built, <i>read</i> and built.	p. 347, lines 43 and 52, <i>for</i> " Horse and Bull Coins "
" " 27, <i>for</i> there," <i>read</i> "there."	<i>read</i> " Cock and Bull Coins."

SYSTEM OF transliteration.

The system of transliteration followed in this Journal for Sanskrit and Kanarese, (and, for the sake of uniformity, submitted for adoption, as far as possible, in the case of other languages),— except in respect of modern Hindu personal names, in which absolute purism is undesirable, and in respect of a few Anglicised corruptions of names of places, sanctioned by long usage, — is this :—

Sanskrit.	Kanarese.	Transliteration.	Sanskrit.	Kanarese.	Transliteration.
अ	अ	a	ज	ज	ja
आ	आ	ā	झ	झ	jha
इ	इ	i	ञ	ञ	ña
ई	ई	ī	ट	ट	ṭa
उ	उ	u	ठ	ठ	ṭha
ऊ	ऊ	ū	ड	ड	ḍa
क	क	ka	ढ	ढ	ḍha
ख	ख	kha	ण	ण	ṇa
ग	ग	ga	त	त	ta
घ	घ	gha	थ	थ	tha
ङ	ङ	ṅa	द	द	da
च	च	cha	ध	ध	dha
छ	छ	chha	न	न	na
			प	प	pa
Visarga	Visarga	h	फ	फ	pha
Jihvāmūlīya, or old		ḥ	ब	ब	ba
Visarga before क	—		भ	भ	bha
and ख			म	म	ma
Upadhmanīya, or		ḥ	य	य	ya
old Visarga be-	—		र	र	ra
fore प and फ			—	ॠ	ṛa
Anusvāra	Anusvāra	m̐	ॡ	ॡ	ḷa
Anundśīka	—	m̐	—	ॢ	ḹa
क	क	ka	व	व	va
ख	ख	kha	श	श	śa
ग	ग	ga	ष	ष	ṣa
घ	घ	gha	स	स	sa
ङ	ङ	ṅa	ह	ह	ha
च	च	cha			
छ	छ	chha			

A single hyphen is used to separate words in composition, as far as it is desirable to divide them. It will readily be seen where the single hyphen is only used in the ordinary way, at the end of a line, as divided in the original Text, to indicate that the word runs on into the next line; intermediate divisions, rendered unavoidable here and there by printing necessities, are made only where absolutely necessary for neatness in the arrangement of the Texts.

A double hyphen is used to separate words in a sentence, which in the original are written as one word, being joined together by the euphonic rules of *saṁdhi*. Where this double hyphen is used, it is to be understood that a final consonant, and the following initial vowel or consonant-and-vowel, are in the original expressed by one complex sign. Where it is not used, it is to be understood of the orthography of the original, that, according to the stage of the alphabet, the final consonant either has the modified broken form, which, in the oldest stages of the alphabet, was used to indicate a consonant with no vowel attached to it, or has the distinct sign of the *virāma* attached to it; and that the following initial vowel or consonant has its full initial form. In the transcription of ordinary texts, the double hyphen is probably unnecessary; except where there is the *saṁdhi* of final and initial vowels. But, in the transcription of epigraphical records, the use of this sign is unavoidable, for the purpose of indicating exactly the palaeographical standard of the original texts.

The *avagraha*, or sign which indicates the elision of an initial *a*, is but rarely to be met with in inscriptions. Where it does occur, it is most conveniently represented by its own Devanāgarī sign.

So also practice has shewn that it is more convenient to use the ordinary Devanāgarī marks of punctuation than to substitute the English signs for them.

Ordinary brackets are used for corrections and doubtful points; and square brackets, for letters which are much damaged and nearly illegible in the original, or which, being wholly illegible, can be supplied with certainty. An asterisk attached to letters or marks of punctuation in square brackets, indicates that those letters or marks of punctuation were omitted altogether in the original. As a rule, it is more convenient to use the brackets than to have recourse to footnotes; as the points to which attention is to be drawn attract notice far more readily. But notes are given instead, when there would be so many brackets, close together, as to encumber the text and render it inconvenient to read. When any letters in the original are wholly illegible and cannot be supplied, they are represented, in metrical passages, by the sign for a long or a short syllable, as the case may be; and in prose passages, by points, at the rate, usually, of two for each *akṣhara* or syllable.

THE INDIAN ANTIQUARY.

A JOURNAL OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH.

VOLUME XXI.—1892.

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.

(Continued from Vol. XX. page 266.)

CHAPTER IV. (continued).

THE AUTHOR AND THE LANGUAGE OF THE INSCRIPTIONS.

PART II. — THE LANGUAGE.

THE language of our inscriptions presents, especially as regards grammar, hardly any absolutely impenetrable obscurities. Much light is thrown upon it by a comparison with the analogous idioms with which literature has made us familiar. Nevertheless, the orthographical or dialectic peculiarities which distinguish the different versions, and the chronological position which our monuments occupy, lend to their study a philological importance, on which it is not necessary to insist.

I propose, in the first place, to sum up, in as condensed an inventory as possible, all the grammatical phenomena worthy of interest. In a second part I shall draw general conclusions from these phenomena. I shall endeavour to determine the true nature of the orthographical processes, to define the extent of the differences of dialect, and to group together those indications which are adapted to throw light on the state of linguistic development in the middle of the 3rd century B. C.

In spite of the continual progress with which attempts at their decipherment are rewarded, the condition of the monuments does not permit us to hope that the texts will ever be fixed with a rigorous certainty. Our facsimiles, moreover, are, at least for several versions, still regrettably insufficient.

It is, therefore, impossible to establish absolute accuracy in our statistics of the grammatical forms; and it must be understood that many of the facts which are about to be recorded, if they are rare and exceptional, are not free from doubt; but, fortunately, the characteristic phenomena reappear sufficiently often to entitle us to establish them on solid grounds, and what remains in doubt is in no way likely to compromise our general deductions.

I. — THE GRAMMAR OF THE INSCRIPTIONS.

A. — GIRNAR.

1. — PHONETICS.

(a). — Vowels.

Changes of Quantity. — Except in certain special cases, I enter neither here nor elsewhere under this heading, words in which the lengthening or the shortening is the result of compensation, and can be explained either by the simplification or by the doubling of the consonant which follows. It is hardly necessary to add that, among the changes of quantity here noted a great many may be and can only be apparent, being referable either to mistakes of the engravers or to incorrect readings.

Vowels lengthened. — *Ānantaram*, VI, 8; *asampratiṣṭā*, IV, 2; *śva* (= *śva*), XII, 7; *abhīramakāni*, VIII, 2; *chikichhā*, II, 5; *nāhikā*, V, 8; *vipulā*, VII, 3; *vijayamhi*, XIII, 10; *tāhā*, XI, 4; *madhūritāya*, XIV, 4. At the end of words: *chā*, IV, 11; *śā* (nom. masc.), XIII, 4; *mitśasāstuta*, III, 4; *nā*, I, 2; XIV, 2; *parāpāsāṇḍagarahā*, XII, 13; *sarvatā*, II, 6; *tātā*, XII, 8; XIII, 4; *tatrā*, XIII, 1; *ētāmhi*, IX, 2; *panhikēśā*, II, 8.

A long vowel regularly becomes short before anusvāra, or before a consonantal group, even when, as here, the latter is not represented in writing: but sometimes, instead of doubling the consonant, the preceding vowel is lengthened in compensation: *dhāma*, V, 4; *vāsa*, V, 4 al. Sometimes the vowel remains long, even though nasalized: *amuvīdhiyatām*, X, 2; *atikāntām*, VIII, 1; *susrusātām*, X, 2; *vihārayātām*, VIII, 1; *samachēdām*, XIII, 7. We should, perhaps, add here several cases in which *d* represents a Sanskrit *ān* (see below *Nasalized vowels*). Sometimes, finally, a vowel remains long before a consonantal group: *bāmhaṇa*, IV, 2; VIII, 3; XI, 2; *nāst*, passim; *rāṣṭika*, V, 5; *tadātpanē*, X, 1; *ātpa*-, passim; and before a mute followed by *r*: *bhrātrā*, IX, 6; *mātram*, XIII, 1; *parākramāmi*, V, 11; *parākramēna*, VI, 14.

Vowels shortened. — *Āradhā*, IX, 9; *dradhō*, XI, 4; *ētarisā*, IX, 4; *danē*, IX, 7; *ōpayā*, VIII, 5; *nāhikēna*, IX, 3; *susrusā* (once *susrusā*). At the end of words *māhaphālā*, IX, 4; *prāṇa*,

I, 10; III, 4; *rāja*, V, 1; *tada*, XIII, 5; *tatha*, XII, 6 (several times *tathā*); *yatha*, III, 3 (several times *yathā*); *va* (in the meaning of *vā*), V, 8, 5; VI, 2, 3, 9, &c.

Changes of Quality. — *Pirinda* or *pārinda* = *pulinda* (P), XIII, 9. *Īta* (= *atra*) VIII, 1, 3; IX, 3. *Ī* is weakened to *i* in *ōvādītavya* (for *ōdē*) IX, 8; *likhāpayisān*, XIV, 3 (for *lē*). — The vowel *ri* is written *ra* in *vraçhā*, II, 8; — *a* in *bhati*, XII, 6; *vaçhā*, XII, 2, etc.; *bhataka*, IX, 4, &c.; *daçha*, VII, 3; *kata*, passim; *kachā*, IX, 8; *maya*, I, 11, 12; *magavyā*, VIII, 1; *suhadaya*, IX, 7; *usa*, X, 4; *vistata*, XIV, 2; *vyāpata*, passim; — *i* in *tārisa*, IV, 5; *ētārisa*, IX, 7, &c.; *yārisa*, XI, 1, &c.; — *u* in *paripuchhā*, VIII, 4; *vuta*, X, 2.

Additions and Suppressions. — Additions: *a* in *garahā*, XII, 3; *garahāni*, XII, 5; *i* in *itā*, XII, 9; *u* in *prāpunōri*, XIII, 4.

Suppressions: *a* in *pi* (passim) for *api* which is preserved II, 2; *i* in *tī* (V, 8; XIII, 11) for *īti*, which is preserved five times; *ē* in *va* for *ēva* (passim).

Contractions. — *ava* into *ō* in *ōrōdhanā* (passim); *ōvādītavya*, IX, 8; *ahō*, IV, 3, if I am right in explaining it as equivalent to *athavā*; — *a(l)u* into *ō* in *khō*; — *a(y)ū* into *ō* in *mōra*, I, 11; — *a(v)ē* into *ai* in *thaira*, IV, 7; V, 7; VIII, 3; — *a(y)ē* in *ē* in *vijētavya*, XIII, 11, and several times in the formative affix of the causal, *hāpēsati*, &c. Cf. below; — *ayō* into *ai* in *traidasa*, V, 4; — *ya* into *i* in *parishijitpā*, X, 4; — *iya* into *ē* in *ētaṅka*, XIV, 3; — if *pētēnika*, V, 5, really represents a corruption of *pratishīhāna*, we should have in it the contraction of *a(t)ē* into *ē*.

Nasalized Vowels. — The nasal, whether before a consonant, or at the end of words, is, except in two cases in which a final *m* is preserved by sandhi, invariably expressed by anusvāra. The anusvāra is omitted in a certain number of cases, such as *achāyika* for *°kaṁ*, VI, 7; *pāsāṇḍa* for *°dān*, XII, 4; *avihiśā* for *°hiśā*, IV, 6, &c. These omissions, several of which are, without doubt, only apparent, and due to the condition of the stone, are in every case accidental, and are to be referred to the

negligence of the engraver. I lay no stress upon them.

Certain cases seem to imply the equivalence of a long vowel to a vowel nasalized : *āparātā*, V, 5; *atikābān*, IV, 1; V, 3; VI, 1; *susunāsā*, XIII, 3; *niyātu* (= *niryāntu*), III, 3; *pādā*, II, 2; *susrusā* (accusative), X, 2; *nichā* (= *nityan*), VII, 3; *pūjā* (acc.), XII, 2, 8; *van* (= *vā*, *var*), XII, 6; *sāmichan* (nom. pl. masc. P), II, 3. But in most of these examples the nasalized vowel is long by derivation, and it may as well be admitted that the sign for anusvāra has accidentally disappeared. It is also possible that the apparent confusion between *ā* and *an* may, in some cases, be due to an error in the reading. The second *u* of *susrusā*, being here almost always written short, there are grounds for believing that the anusvāra of *susunāsā* is due to an inadvertence of the scribe; the reading *sāmichan* and its interpretation are not certain. There would, therefore, only remain *nichā*, an unique example, and but a fragile basis for such a deduction. We might, perhaps, add *ētā*, IX, 5, which would be equivalent to *ētān* (nom. sing. neut.), unless, indeed it represents *ētān*.

In one case also, *karu*, XI, 4 (cf. *karān*, XII, 4), *an* appears to be replaced by *u*; and sometimes by *ē* : in *athē*, VI, 4, 5; *yutē*, III, 6; *savē* (*sarvē*) *kālē*, VI, 3, 8. But several of these facts admit, as we shall see, of a different explanation.

In *pravāsānīhī*, IX, 2, the nasal is written twice over, by an abuse which is too frequent in the manuscripts to cause us surprise.

(b). — Consonants.

Simple Consonants. — Changes. — *g*h into *h*, in *lahukā*, XII, 3; — dentals into cerebrals, in *paṭi* for *prati* (passim); perhaps *paṭi* in *hiraṇyapratīvidhānō*, VIII, 4, but *pra* is doubtful; *usaṭa*, X, 4; *śaḍha*, III, 5; *vaḍhā*, XII, 2, 8, 9 (beside *vaḍhi*, IV, 11); *daṣaṇā*, IV, 3; *daṣaṇē*, VIII, 3 (*daṣanān*, VIII, 4); *prāpūṇōti*, XIII, 4; *yāṇa*, V, 5;¹ — *th* into *h* in *ahō* (*athavā*); — *d* into *r* in *tārisa*, *ētārisa*, *yārisa*; — *bh* into *h* in the base *bhū* : *hōti*, *ahūṣu*, &c.; — *l* into *r*, if *piriṇḍa* or *pūriṇḍa*, XIII, 9, is equivalent to *pulinda*. If *pētēnīka*,

V, 5, is really derived from *pratiśṭhāna*, it would afford an example of the loss of the aspiration, *t* for *ṭh*.

Suppressions and Additions. — Suppression of an entire syllable in *athā* (= *athāya*), XII, 9; *ilōkika*, XIII, 12; *ilōkacha*, XI, 4 (for *ihālō*); loss of the initial *y* in *āva(yāvat)*, V, 2, al.; of a medial consonant in *kḥō* (*khalu*), *mōra* (*mayūra*). — Addition of a *v* in *vuta* (*ukta*), IX, 6, &c.

Compound Consonants.

kt becomes *t* : *abhīṣita*, &c.

ky becomes *k* : *saka*, XIII, 6.

kr becomes *k* : *atikāntān*, VIII, 1, &c.; *parāśmatē*, X, 3, &c. It remains unchanged in *parākrāmāmi*, VI, 11; *parākrāmēna*, VI, 14.

ksh becomes *chh* : *achhāti*, XIII, 7; *chhapati*, XII, 5; *chhūḍaka*, XII, 4, &c.; *saṁchhāya*, XIV, 5; *vachhā*, II, 8; — *kh*, in *ithīyakhamaḥmātā*, XII, 9; *khamitavē*, XIII, 6; *saṁkhitēna*, XIV, 2.

gn becomes *g* : *agīkhamāhāni*, IV, 4.

gr becomes *g* : *agēna*, X, 4, &c.

jñ becomes (*ñ*)*ñ* : *katāññatā*, VII, 3, &c.; *dhapayāmi*, VI, 6, al.

dy becomes *ḍ* in *pādā* (*pāṇḍyāḥ*), II, 2.

ny becomes *ṇ* : *ānāṇa*, VI, 11; *hiraṇṇa*, VIII, 4.

tm becomes *tp* in *ātpa*, XII, 3, 4, 5, 6.

tth becomes *ṭ* in *uṣṭāna*, VI, 9, 10.

ty becomes *ch* : *āchāyika*, VI, 7, &c.

tr becomes *t*, as in *bhātā*, XI, 3, &c. It is unchanged in *bhrūtrā*, IX, 6; *mātram*, XIII, 1; *mitrēna*, IX, 7; *paratrā*, VI, 12; *prapōtrā*, IV, 8; *pōtrā*, IV, 8; *putrā*, IV, 8, al.; *sarvatra*, VI, 8, al.; *savatra*, VI, 4; *tatrā*, XIII, 1; *tatra*, XIV, 5; *yatra*, II, 7.

tv becomes *tp* : *ālōchētpā*, XIV, 6; *drabhītpā*, I, 3; *chatpārō*, XIII, 8; *dasayītpā*, XIV, 4; *hitatpā*, VI, 11; *parichijītpā*, XIV, 4; *tadūtpanē*, X, 1. It becomes *t* in *satiyaputō*, II, 2, if the etymology proposed by Dr. Bühler is correct.

ts becomes *chh* in *chikichhā*, II, 4, &c.; — and *s* in *uṣṭāna*, X, 4.

ddh is preserved : *vaḍhi*, IV, 11, or more ordinarily changed into *ḍh* in *vaḍhi*, XII, 9, al.

¹ The cerebral *v* is always preserved in the base; it never appears in terminations, even where it ought to

exist according to the Sanskrit rule, as in *dēvānāmpriyēna*, &c.

hm becomes *mh*; it is, at least, thus that I believe that we should read the group ४, which, strictly speaking, could also be read *hm*.

(c). — Sandhi.

Sandhi rarely occurs except between the parts of a compound word, and, as an almost invariable rule, requires the elision of final consonants; it is nearly exclusively vocalic.

A final anusvāra is changed into *m* in *kata-vyam éva*, IX, 3; *évaṁ api*, II, 2. I further note the form *añamanāsa*, XII, 7.

A final *d* is retained in *tadōpayā* VIII, 5; *tadannāthā*, XII, 5.

a + a gives *ā*, except in *dhāmadhisānāya*, V, 4; *dhāmanugahā*, IX, 7. In *nāsti* (passim), the long vowel is retained in spite of the double consonant which follows.

a + i gives *é* in *vijayēohhā*, XIII, 11.²

a + u gives *ō* in *manusōpagāni* II, 5.

a + ē gives *é* in *tēnēsā*, VIII, 3; *chēva*, IV, 7.

i + a gives *i* in *itthijhahamahāmātā*, XII, 9.

u + u gives *ō* in *pasōpagāni*, II, 6, a curious form which would appear to be borne out by the other versions.

2. — INFLEXION.

It must be understood that, except in special cases, I shall not expressly quote those modifications which are of a purely mechanical character, being merely the applications of the phonetic rules which have just been indicated.

(a). — Gender.

The distinction between the masculine and the neuter tends to disappear. This, as we shall shortly see, is evidently due to the influence of the Māgadhi spelling.

(b). — Declension of Consonantal Bases.

This tends to go over into the declension of bases in *a*: *parishad* becomes *parisā*; *harman* becomes *kañma*, and is declined like a neuter in *a*; of *varchas*, we have the locative *vachamhi*, VI, 3; the present participle of *as*, makes its nominative singular *santō*, VI, 7; VIII, 2.

The following are the traces which still exist:—

Bases in AN. — nom. s. *rājā*; gen. s. *rājñō*; instr. s. *rājñā*; nom. pl. *rājānō*.

Bases in ANT. — *Karam*, XII, 4, nom. sing. of the participle present, beside *karō(n)tō*, XII, 5, *tiṣṭantō*, nom. pl. masc., IV, 9.

Bases in AB(RI). — Contrary to the other versions, Girnar presents, for these bases, no traces of the passage into the vocalic declension. Instrum. sing. *bhrātā*, IX, 6; *bhātrā*, XI, 3; *pitā*, IX, 5; XI, 3. Locat. sing. *mātari*, *pitari*, passim.

Bases in AS. — Acc. sing. *yasō*, X, 1, 2; *bhuya*, VIII, 5, ought to be *bhuyō*.

Bases in IN. — Here we have no trace of the vocalic declension. — Nom. sing. *piyadasi*, *priyadasi* (passim); the final vowel is always short. — Gen. sing. *pi(pri)yadasinō*; instr. *pi(pri)yadasinā*.

(c). — Declension of Vocalic Bases.

Bases in A. — Masculines. — The terminations are the same as in Pāli. I only note peculiarities worthy of remark.

Nominative singular. — Besides the regular form in *ō*, there are several cases of the nominative in *é*, as in Māgadhi: *apaparisavé*, X, 3; *puvā*, IV, 5; *dēvānampiyé*, XII, 1; *prādesiké*, III, 2; *rajūké*, III, 2; *sakalé*, X, 3; *yé*, V, 1. To these examples we should add the many more numerous cases in which the nominative neuter ends in *é*, instead of, and beside, *añ*. It is the less permissible to suggest a mechanical change of *añ* to *é*, because the termination *añ* is still retained in the majority of cases. We have, therefore, here an imitation of Māgadhi; and, so far as regards Māgadhi itself, the final reason for the use of the termination *é* in the neuter, lies in the obliteration of the distinction between the neuter and the masculine, which has resulted in the common acceptance, for both genders, of the uniform use of the masculine termination. It is clearly in this way that, VIII, 4, we have *hirañnapatiividhānō* (for *dhānāñ*).

Accusative singular. — I have quoted above the form in *é* in *athé*, VI, 4, 5, and *yuté*, III, 6, for the accusative. Twice, *sarvā kālā*, VI, 3, 8, corresponds to *savāñ kālāñ* of the other versions. It must, nevertheless, be stated that

² Dr. Bühler's interpretation would do away with this combination.

śavé kálé, can very well be explained as a locative, and that *yuté* could, without difficulty, be understood as a Pāli accusative plural. It is true that we miss parallel examples to authenticate this termination here. However the matter may be, if we must really admit it, I can hardly imagine for the ending *é* of the accusative, any origin other than false analogy with neuter nominatives in *é*.

Dative singular. — It is always in *āya*. There is one solitary instance of the form *ētāyē*, III, 3.

Ablative singular. — In *ā*: *hitatpā*, VI, 11; *kapā*, IV, 9.

Locative singular. — In *amhi* or in *é*. The two terminations occur with about equal frequency.

Neuters. — The terminations are the usual ones.

Nominative singular. — As examples of the nominative in *ā*, I quote: *añé*, IX, 5; *bahuvīdhé*, IV, 7; *charaṇé*, IV, 7, 10; *dānē*, VII, 3; VIII, 3; *dasanē*, VIII, 3; *maṅgalé*, IX, 4 (*maṅgalaṃ*, IX, 1, 2, 3, 4); *kaṇṇmé*, IV, 10; *mahālaké* (*vijitāṃ*), XIV, 3; *mahaphalé*, IX, 4; *katavyamaté* (*lōkahitaṃ*), VI, 9; *mūlé*, VI, 10; *paṭivīdhānē*, VIII, 4; *sēṣṭé kaṇṇmé*, IV, 10; *vipūlé*, VII, 3; *yé*, V, 2; *tārisé*, *yārisé*, *vaḍḍhité*, IV, 5.

Nominative plural. — We have a termination in *ā*, instead of *āni*, in *dasanā*, IV, 3; *prāṇa* (read *ṇā*), I, 10.

Feminines. —

Instrumental singular. — In *āya*, as *mādhūritāya*, XIV, 4.

Locative singular. — In *āyaṃ*, as *parisāyaṃ*, VI, 7. It is difficult to decide whether *samīraṇāya*, VI, 9, is, or is not, an error of the engraver.

Nominative plural. — In *āyō*, in *mahidāyō*, IX, 3.

Bases in I. — Of **Masculines** we find —

Genitive plural. — *Ñātīmaṇ*, IV, 6, al.

Locative plural. — *Ñātīsu*, IV, 1.

Feminines. — We have no example of the plural. For the singular, the accusative in *ā*, and the instrumental in *iyā*, call for no remark.

Nominative singular. — In *ī*. I note, however, *apachīti*, IX, 11; *hīni*, IV, 4; *raṭi*, VIII, 5.

Dative singular. — *Anusasṭiya*, III, 3, ought perhaps to read *ṇyē*.

Ablative singular. — *Taṇḥapaṇṇī*, II, 2.

Bases in U. — **Masculines.** —

Nominative singular. — *Sādhu*, IX, 5.

Genitive plural. — *Gurīmaṇ*, IX, 4.

Ablative plural. — *Bahūhi*, IV, 4.

Feminines. —

Nominative singular. — *Sādhu*, IX, 4, 11.

Neuters. —

Nominative singular. — *Bahu*, XIV, 3, al.; *sādhu*, IX, 8, al.

Nominative plural. — *Bahūni*, I, 8, al.

(d). — **Declension of Pronouns.**

Demonstratives, &c. — I give, according to the alphabetical order of the bases, the forms found at Girnar.

Anyā. — Nom. sing. neuter: *añé*, IV, 7; IX, 5 *añā*, IV, 9; IX, 19. — Gen. sing.: *añamaṇṇasa*, XII, 7. — Loc. sing.: *aññé*, VIII, 5, beside *añamhi*, IX, 2. — Nom. pl.: *aññé*, V, 5.

Ima. — Nom. sing. masc., *ayaṃ*; fem. *iyam*; neuter, *idaṃ*. *Ayaṃ* is, however, used for the feminine: I, 10; V, 9; VI, 13; XIV, 1, and for the neuter with *phalaṃ*, XII, 9. — Gen. masc.: *imasa*, IV, 11. — Dat. fem.: *imāya*, III, 3. — Instr. masc.: *imindā*, IX, 8, 9. — Loc.: *imamhi*, IV, 10.

Ēkatya. — Nom. plur. masc.: *ēkachā*, I, 6.

Ēta. — Nom. sing. masc.: *ēsa*, X, 3; used for the neuter, or rather with a masculine which, by origin, is neuter, such as *kaṇṇmé*, &c., IV, 7, 10; VI, 10; fem., *ēsā*, VIII, 3, 5; neuter, *ētaṃ*, X, 4 (perhaps under the form *ētā*, IX, 5); the parallel use of *ta* would lead one to think that *ēta*, X, 4; XI, 3 = *ētaḍ*, and is not an incomplete writing of *ētaṃ*. — Dat. sing.: *ētāya*, once (III, 3) *ētāyē*. — Loc.: *ētamhi*, IX, 2. — Nom. pl.: *ētē*, which, being associated with *tī prāṇā*, indicates again a confusion of genders.

Ka. — Nom. sing. masc.: *kōchi*, XII, 5, neuter: *kiñchi*, passim.

Ta. — Nom. sing. masc.: *sa*, XII, 5, and usually *sô*; fem.: *sā*, XIII, 10; neuter: *tañ*, XIII, 2, more often *ta*, IV, 10, al., whether for *tañ*, or more probably for *taḍ*, preserved in composition, VIII, 5 and XII, 5; *sē* is employed adverbially as equivalent to *taḍ*, I, 10, as frequently appears in the versions in a Māgadhi spelling. — It is unnecessary to draw special attention to *tañ*, *tasa*, *tāya*, *tēna*, *tañhi*, *tē*, *tēsañ*, *tēhi*.

Na. — XII, 1, we find *nē* used as an accusative, and applied to neuter substantives.

Ya. — Nom. sing. masc.: *yô*, once (V, 1) *yē*; neuter: *yañ*, VIII, 3, but much more frequently *ya*, for *yad*, IV, 10; VI, 5, 6, 11; X, 3; XII, 3. — Nom. plur.: *yē*, *yā*, XIII, 6; *yāni*.

Sarva. — Nom.-acc. sing. neuter., *sarvañ* (*savañ*). — Loc. sing. (?) : *sarvê*, VI, 8; *savê*, VI, 3. — Nom. plur.: *savê*, VII, 1.

Personal pronouns. — The following forms occur of the pronoun of the first person: *ahañ*, *mama*, *mē* for the genitive and once (VI, 9), for the instrumental, *mayā*.

(e). — Declension of Numerals.

Dvê, nom., I, 11; II, 4. — *Ti*, nom. neuter (*prāṇā*), I, 10, 12. — *Chatpārô*, nom. masc., XIII, 8. — *Pañchasa*, loc., III, 2.

3. — CONJUGATION.

(a). — Verbal Bases.

The simple bases are, in general, the same as in Sanskrit, after making allowance for phonetic modifications, as when we have side by side, *bhavati* and *hōti*, *prāpunōti* for *prāpnōti*. There are, however, changes, as: *chhaṇāti*, XII, 5, in place of *chhaṇōti*; *karañ*, XII, 4, participle present, beside *karōntô*, XII, 6; we should note the extension and alteration of the base of the present in *prajūhitavyañ*, I, 3. The consonantal conjugation is only preserved in *asti*; in *upahantti*, XII, 6, it passes into the 9th class. For the root *kram* we have the two bases: *parākramāmi*, VI, 11, and *parākmatê*, X, 3. In the passive, the formative affix *ya* is combined according to the usual phonetic laws, in *ārabharê*, I, 11; *ārabhisamrê*, I, 12; *ārabhisu*, I, 9.

In the causals, whether in *aya* or in *paya* the formative *aya* is contracted to *ē* whenever it would take the form *ayi*: *alôchētpā*, XIV, 6;

hāpēsati, V, 3; *paṭivēdētavya*, VI, 8; *pūjēta*-(*v*)*ya*, XII, 4. One exception: *līkhāpayitañ*, XIV, 3. In one case, *ōvādītavya*, IX, 8, it is even reduced to *i*. *Līkhāpayisañ*, beside the usual *līkhāpita*, presents an analogous weakening in the base.

(b). — Terminations.

Present. — The terminations of the middle voice, which in one case are, for this tense, used to form a passive, *ārabharê*, I, 11, are generally used with a neuter, or even with an active sense: *anuvatarê*, XIII, 9 (the reading *anuvatanṭê* of Dr. Bühler appears to be at least very doubtful); *manṇatê*, X, 1; XII, 8; *parākmatê*, X, 3 (by the side of *parākramāmi*, VI, 11); *karôtê*, IX, 1, 2, 3 (by the side of *karoti*, V, 1). — In *sukhāpayāmi*, VI, 12, associated, on the one hand, with *gachchēyañ*, and, on the other hand, with *ārādhayañtu*, it is difficult to avoid recognising the subjunctive use.

Imperative. — The 3rd pers. plur.: *ārādhayañtu*, VI, 12; *niyātu*, III, 3; *yujāntu*, IV, 11, require no remarks. The middle termination, with an active sense, is preserved in the 3rd sing.: *anuvīdhīyatāñ*, X, 2; *susrusatāñ*, X, 2. It will be noted that both exceptionally retain the long vowel *āñ* and not *añ*. The 2nd pers. plur. borrows, as in Prakrit and in Pāli the termination *tha* of the present, *paṭivēdētha*, VI, 5.

Potential. — 1st pers. sing.: *gachchēyañ*, VI, 11; plur. *dīpayēma*, XII, 6. — 3rd pers. sing. in *ē* in *bhavê*, XII, 13; in *ēya*, in *tistēya*, VI, 13; in *ētha*, i. e. with the termination of the middle, in *paṭipajētha*, XIV, 4; plural: in *ēyu*, in *vasēyu*, VII, 1; in *ērañ*, termination of the middle: in *anuvat(ē)rañ*, VI, 14; *sususeṣrañ*, XII, 7. Dr. Bühler reads *sruṇērañ*, i. e. *sruṇērañ*, XII, 7, the form which to me seems to give *sruṇāju*. The correct reading would be *sruṇēju* for *sruṇēyu*. But, at Girnar, we have no certain example of the spelling *j* for *y*. — The verb *as* makes the 3rd sing. in *asa*, X, 3, and the plural *asu* (*dsu*), XII, 7. There is considerable difference of opinion as to the origin of this form; some look for it in the Vedic subjunctive *asat*, and others in the extension by analogy of *syāt*, *syuh* into *asyāt*, *asyus* (Kuhn, *Beitr. zur Pāli Gramm.*, p. 104).

Past. — 3rd pers. plur. aorist: *ahun̄su*, VIII, 2; *ārab̄hisu* (= *ārab̄bhisu*, passive sense), I, 9. The form *ñayāsu*, i. e. *n(ā)yayāsu*, VIII, 1, may be compared with the 3rd pers. sing. in *āsi*, of the dialect of the Gāthās (cf. *Mahāvastu*, I, 548). The 3rd sing. *ayāya*, would seem to be a sort of imperfect, influenced, perhaps, by the analogy of the perfect *yāyē*.

A solitary example of the perfect, in *āha*, passim.

Future. — The only example of the 1st pers. sing. is in *am̄*, for *āmi*, as in Prākṛit: *likhāpayisam̄*, XIV, 3. The 3rd plur. has twice a middle form: *anuvatisarē*, V, 2; *ārab̄hisam̄rē* (passive), I, 12; in this last case, the *m̄* is a

material error, unless it has been introduced after the analogy of the termination *am̄ti*.

Absolutive. — In *tpā* (= *tvā*): *alōchētpā*, XIV, 6; *ārab̄hitpā*, 1, 3. Once in *ya*, in *sañchhāya* = *sañkshaya*, XIV, 5.

Infinitive. — *Ārādhētū(m̄)*, IX, 9. — It is very doubtful whether *khamitavē*, XIII, 6, is an infinitive. *Dāpakam̄* and *śrāvāpakam̄* (VI, 6), which appear to perform the office of infinitives, are in reality adjectives, like *pāchaka*, *bōdhaka*, with this particular shade of meaning, 'which is to be given,' 'which is to be taught.'

Participles. — The middle form of the participle present is preserved in *bhūñjamānasa*, VI, 3.

B. — KAPUR DI GIRI.

The readings of Kapur di Giri have of late made marked progress.³ A few items of uncertainty, no doubt, still remain, a state of affairs which is sufficiently explained by the condition of the rock, but it is only in points of detail that certainty is really impossible, and we may believe that, so far as decipherment is concerned, we have not so much to expect from the future. I cannot, therefore, do better than take for the basis of my grammatical analysis the last publication of Dr. Bühler in the *Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, XLIII., pp. 128 and ff.

1. — PHONETICS.

(a). — Vowels.

The alphabet of Kapur di Giri does not distinguish between long and short vowels. We cannot, therefore, here discuss changes of quantity.

Changes of Quality. — *a* for *u* in *garunam̄*, IX, 19; *pana*, *ibid.*, by the side of *guru* and *puna*. — *i* for *ē*, in *likhāpayami*, XIV, 13; *bhagi am̄ti*, VIII, 17; *vinamam̄*, XIII, 3; *am̄tikini*, XIII, 9; *ghatiti*, XIV, 13; *duvi*, I, 1. — *u* for *a* in *uchavucha*, IX, 18; *ōshudhani*, II, 5; *muta*, XIII, 8; *ē* for *a* in *ētra*, VI, 15; *ētraka*, IX, 20. We cannot say that *ē* has been substituted for *a* in cases like *sañkshayē*, XIV, 14 and the datives in *ayē*; all we can do is to infer the graphic equivalence of *aya* and *ayē*. — *ē* for *i* in *ēdisam̄* XI, 23; *al.* — In *bhuyē* (for *bhuyē*) we should not, I think, look for an actual change in this dialect of *ē* into *ē*, but should simply consider it as an accidental Māgadhism of the spelling. — *u* for *ō* in *likhāpītu*, I, 1. The vowel *ri* has no real existence

in this dialect, which, however, does not prevent its being represented in several ways by the orthography. It takes sometimes the form *ra*, in *grahatha*, XIII, 4; XII, 1, sometimes the form *ri*, in *vistriṣṇa*, XIV, 13, and sometimes *ru*, in *śruṇēyu*, XII, 7; *mrugō*, I, 3. It is changed to *a* in *dukaṣam̄*, V, 11; *vapaṣa*, XII, 9; *viyapaṣa*, V, 13; *usatiṣa*, X, 22; so also in *vajri*, in which the influence of the etymological form has introduced an *r* in the following syllable; — to *i* in *diḍha*, VII, 5; *ēdisa*, IX, 18, *al.*; *kiṣa*, VI, 14; the influence of the *r* has here cerebralised the dental, which shews that the orthography *kiṣra*, II, 4; VII, 12; VII, 5, is purely a learned and affected one; — to *u* in *vuḍhēshu* V, 12; *viyapuṣa* V, 13; *paripuchha*, VIII, 17; *mutē*, XIII, 1; *dharmavutam̄*, XIII, 10. — In *rukha*, XII, 5, *vri* would be changed into *ru*, but Dr. Bühler's reading, *vuta*, gives an entirely different word.

Additions and Suppressions. — Additions: initial *i* in *istri*, XII, 9.

Suppressions: *a* in *pi* (passim); *i* in *ti* (passim); *ē* in *va* = *ēva* X, 22, *al.*; *vō* and

³ Note by Translator. — The section regarding Kapur di Giri having been entirely re-written by the author for the purpose of this translation, it is hardly necessary to point out that the following, in no way, agrees with the corresponding pages of the original work.

yô = *évan* (cf. below); in *sha* = *éshān*, VI, 16, if Dr. Bühler's analogy is well founded.

Contractions. — *ava* into *ô* in *ôrôdhana*, VI, 14; &c.; into *a* in *yamatrô*, XIII, 6, if we must take it as equivalent to *yāvamātra*; *alu* into *ô* in *khô* (passim) and *u* in *ku*, IV, 9; *iya* into *é* in *étakayé*, X, 21; *ayô* into *i* in *tīlāśa*, V, 11, if this is the correct reading, which I strongly doubt; — *vā* into *u* in the participle absolute, and in *chatura*, XIII, 9.

As for examples of Hiatus like *dévanapriasa*, *priadarśisa* I, 1; XIII, 1; *ékatīś*, I, 2; *ia* (*hia*) V, 13; VI, 16; IX, 20; XI, 24, the resemblance between *a* (*é*) and *ya* (*yé*) *ha*, is so close, that it is perhaps still permissible to doubt whether the reading is certainly correct.

Nasalized Vowels. — I believe that, considering the condition of the rock, it is just as impossible as it is at Girnar, or more so, to attach here any definite significance to instances in which the *anusvāra* is omitted, especially as the last revisions have considerably reduced the number.

I shall have occasion, lower down, to draw attention to the equivalence of *an* and *o* final, the explanation of which still appears to me to be doubtful, although certain instances seem really to indicate an actual phonetic phenomenon. A presumption favourable to this explanation might be drawn from the spelling *alikasudarô* for *°san*°, XIII, 9.

As for the nominatives neuter in *e* for *an*, the concurrence of a number of masculine nominatives in *e*, only allows us to recognise in them instances of Māgadhisms, and not a phonetic fact peculiar to the dialect of Kapur di Giri. So also in the cases of *chaturé*, XIII, 9, for *chaturô*, and *rajani* for *rajanô*, equivalent to *rajinô*, *ibid.*, if, as I have considerable doubt, the reading is really correct. As for *ayi* = *ayan*, VI, 16, the correct reading is very probably *ayo*.

(b). — Consonants.

Simple Consonants. — In addition to the characters of the alphabet of Girnar, Kapur di Giri possesses, so far as regards consonants, two peculiar signs, one for the cerebral and the other for the palatal sibilant. I shall only note those instances in which their use does not correspond with that of Sanskrit.

Changes. — *kh* into *k* in *ku* = *khu* (*khalu*), IV, 9.

g into *k* in *maka*, XIII, 9.

gh into *k* in *lahuka*, XIII, 11.

j into *y* in *prayuhôtavé*, I, 1; *raya* (by the side of *raja*), I, 1; al.; *kambôya*, V, 12; — into *cha* in *vrachan̄ti*, XIII, 10; *vrachéyan̄*, VI, 16.

t is cerebralised into *ṭ* under the influence of an *r*-sound, whether vocalic or consonantal. The spelling, however, fluctuates. Not only does the classical appear side by side with the Prākṛit orthography, but we also find intermediate stages in which the *r* is retained in writing, and often in an arbitrary fashion. Examples are, — *prati* becomes *pati*; but *prativēsiyēna*, IX, 19; *saṃpraṭipati*, IV, 8; *praṭipajēya*, XIV, 14; *prativēdētavô*, VI, 14; *paṭrivēdaka*, *paṭrivēdētu*, VI, 14; *paṭrivēdētavô*, VI, 15; *kr̥ita* is written *kiṭa*, VI, 14; *kaṭa* in *sukaṭa*, V, 11; *kiṭra*, II, 4; V, 11, 12; VII, 5; *vyāpṛita* is written *va(viya)paṭa*, passim; *vyapṛa*, V, 13, and also *viyapaṭra*, *ibid.* I may also quote *vistriṭēna*, XIV, 13; *muṭô*, XIII, 6, and *muṭé* (?) XIII, 1. — *t* appears weakened to *d* in *hidasulehayé*, V, 12, by the side of *hita*°, *ibid.*

bh into *h* in *ahô* (= *athavâ*), IV, 8.

d into *y* in *iyam̄* for *idam̄*, nom. sing. neut.

dh into *d* in *kida*, I, 1 = *idha* (?).

p into *v* in *avatrapēyu*, XIII, 8.

b into *p* in *paḍham̄*, VII, 15.

bh into *h* in the base *hōti*, by the side of *bhōti*, *bhavati*.

l into *r* in *arabhati* and its derivatives and in *rochetu*, XIII, 11.

v into *y* in *yô* for *évan̄*, if Dr. Bühler's analysis is correct (in IV, 9).

ś into *y* in *badaya*, III, 5; IV, 10; — into *s* in *anusôchanam̄*, XIII, 2; *samachariya*, XIII, 8.

sh into *ś* in *manuśa*, II, 4, 5 (by the side of *manusha*, XIII, 6); — into *s* in *arabhiyisu*, I, 2; *yēsu*, XIII, 4; *abhisita*, IV, 10; al.

s into *ś* in *anuśāsanam̄*, IV, 10; *anuśāśisam̄ti*, *ibid.*; into *sh* in *pañchashu*, III, 6 (cf. *shashu* below); — into *h* in *haché* (= *sachéd*), IX, 20.

Suppressions and Additions. — Loss of an initial *y* in *ava* = *yāvat*, passim; — of a medial *h* in *ia*, V, 13; VI, 16; IX, 20; XI, 24, if the reading is certain.

Addition of a prosthetic *h* in *hīa*, IX, 20; *hīda*, XIII, 12; *hēdīsa*, VIII, 17; of a *v* in *vachati*, XIII, 8, in *vuta* II, 5, if this reading (= *upta*) should really be preferred to the reading *rukha*.

Compound Consonants. — *kt* becomes *t*: *abhisita*, V, 11; &c.

ky becomes *k* in *śakō* = *śakyaṃ*, XIII, 7.

kr remains unchanged: *parakramati*, X, 22; &c.

ksh becomes *kḥ*: *saṅkḥayē*, XIV, 14; *rukha* (?), II, 5; *khudrakēna*, X, 22; — and *chh*: *mōchhayē*, V, 13; *istridhiyachha*, XII, 9; *chhamitaviyē*, XIII, 7.

khy becomes *kḥ*: *mukhamute*, XIII, 8.

gr remains unchanged: *agrabhūti*, XIII, 4; &c.

jñ becomes *ñ*, except in the base *anapēti*, in which it becomes *ṇ*.

jy becomes *j*: *jōtikamdhani*, IV, 8.

ñj yields *ñ* in *vañanatō*, III, 7.

In *shashu*, I do not think that the *sh* can be considered as representing the group *śs*. We have here an instance of formation of the locative after the analogy of substantives.

ṇdy becomes *mḍ* in *panḍa*, XIII, 9.

ny becomes *ñ*, except in *anāṇiyam*, VI, 16, in which it is written *ṇiya*.

tt becomes cerebralised into *ṭ*, under the influence of an *r*-sound, in *dharmavṛtam*, XIII, 10; *nivṛṭiya*, IX, 19.

tth is written both *th* and *ṭh* in *uthana*, VI, 15.

tm becomes *t* in *ata*° XII, passim.

ty becomes regularly *ch*. The Sanskrit spelling is, however, preserved in *ēkatiś* (or *ēkatiśē*), I, 2; and it is changed into *tī* in *paritipitu*, X, 22, and also, perhaps, in the participle absolutive in *tī*, if it is to be analysed as equivalent to *tya* (by false analogy).

tr remains unchanged, except in *tīdaśa* (or *tō*°) equivalent to *trayōdaśa*.

tv becomes *t*. I can hardly believe in the absolutely solitary example of a double *tt* in *tadattayē* X, 21, as read by Dr. Bühler. I should prefer to suggest the reading *tadatrayē*, were I not much more disposed to think that it is simply *tadattayē* which we should read. Cf. *satiyaputra*, II, 4.

ts becomes *s*: *chikisa*, II, 4; *usaśēna*, X, 22. *ddh* is cerebralised into *ḍh* under the influence of an *r*-sound: *vudhī*, IV, 10; *vudhanam*, VIII, 17.

dy becomes *j*, except in *uyana*, where it becomes *y*, VI, 14.

dr remains unchanged in *khudrakēna*, X, 22.

dv, becomes *d* in *diyadhā*°, XIII, 1, and is resolved into *duv* in *duvi*, I, 3; II, 4; it is reduced to *b* in *badayā*°, IV, 10.

dhr remains unchanged: *dhruva*, I, 3; &c.

nt, instead of the spelling *nt*, appears, according to Dr. Bühler, to be written *tn* in *atīkratnam*, VIII, 17, and *karōtnē*, IX, 18. This is a detail which deserves verification.

ndhr is written *ndhr* in *andhra*, XIII, 10.

ny becomes *ñ*: *anña*, IV, 9; &c.

pt becomes *t*: *natarō*, IV, 9, &c.

pn is resolved into *pun*: *prapunati*, XIII, 6.

pr usually remains unchanged. Excluding doubtful cases, I, however, note *pajupadanē*, IX, 18; *papōtra* XIII, 11. We have already seen how extremely fluctuating is the spelling of *prati*: sometimes *prati* (*prativēśiyēna*, XI, 24), but also *paṭi* (passim), *praṭi* (*samanh-praṭipati*, IX, 19), and *paṭri* (*paṭrivēśdaku*, *paṭrivēśdētu*, VI, 14).

bdh becomes *dh*: *ladheshu*, XIII, 8.

br remains unchanged: *bramaṇa*, passim.

bhy becomes *bḥ*: *arabhīśanti*, I, 3.

bhr remains unchanged: *bhratuna*, IX, 19; al.

my becomes *m* or *m̐*: *abhiramani*, VIII, 17. The double *m* admitted by Dr. Bühler in *samma*, IX, 19; XI, 23; XIII, 5, appears to me to be improbable. I prefer to read *samanh*, and to suggest that either *samanh* is for *saṁhma*, or that *samyak* has taken the form *samanh* by analogy.

mr becomes *m̐b* in *taihbapam̐ni*, II, 4.

rg becomes *g*: *sagam̐*, VI, 16; or is written *gr* in *vagrēna*, X, 22.

rch becomes *ch*, with the *r* transposed to the preceding syllable, in *vruhasi* (= *varchasi*) VI, 14, if my analysis of the word is justified, and we should not understand **vratyasi*.

rṇ becomes *m̐n* in *taihbapam̐ni*, XIII, 9.

rt becomes *ṭ* (*anuvāṭīśanti*, V, 11): sometimes written *rṭ* (*kirṭi*, written *kirṭri*, X, 21),

or with transposition of the *r* to the preceding syllable (*kraṭava*, I, 1); sometimes, also, *t*: *kataṭṭ*, XI, 24.

rth usually gives us *ṭh* (*aṭha*, passim), but also *th* (*aṭhaṇ*, IX, 20; *anathēshu* V, 12), both one and the other being sometimes written with *r*, *ṭhr* (VI, 14; IX, 18) and *thr* (IV, 10).

rthy is written *ṭhriya* in *niraṭhriyaṇ*, IX, 18.

rdh becomes *ḍh*: *vaḍhiṣati*, IV, 9; &c.

rbh gives us *bh* with transposition of the *r* in *garbhagarasi* (written *grabhagarasi*) VI, 14.

rm remains unchanged, but with a transposition of *r* in writing: *krama* = *karma*; *dhrama* = *dharma*. The spelling *dhraṇma*, IV, 8; X, 21, marks the real character of this method of writing.

ry becomes *riy*: *anantariyēna*, VI, 14; *samachariyaṇ*, XIII, 8.

rv usually remains unchanged, with transposition of the *r* either in the same syllable as in *savra*, or to the syllable preceding, *pruva*, V, 11; *sraṇa* (P) VI, 11. But the spelling *v* is not rare: *savatra*, 11; 5; V, 13 (several times); VI, 14, 15, 16; VII, 1; XIII, 10 (several times); *savaṇ*, X, 22.

rs remains unchanged with transposition of the *r*: *°draṣi*.

rsh is written *sh* in *vaṣa*, passim. It remains unchanged in *prashaṇḍa*, scil. *parshaṇḍa*, V, 12; VII, 2; XII, 1, 2.

rshy gives us *sh* in *kashaṇṭi*, V, 11.

lp becomes *p*: *ṭipa*, V, 11; &c.

ly becomes *l* in *kalaṇa*, V, 11.

vy becomes either *va* (*vasanaṇ*, XIII, 5; *kaṭava*, VI, 15; *vataṭṭ*, XI, 24; &c.), or *viya* (*viyapaṭra*, V, 13; *pujētaviya*, XII, 3), often in the same words; or it becomes *y* in *mrugaya*, VIII, 17,

sch becomes *ch* (and not *chh*) in *pacha*, I, 3; XIII, 2.

śy become *śiy* in *prativēśiyēna*, XI, 24.

sr usually remains unchanged (*suśrusa*, passim); it is written *sr* in *srēsta*, I, 2; *srēṭha*, IV, 10.

shk becomes *k*: *dukaraṇ*, V, 11; *dukaṭaṇ*, ibid.

shkr becomes *kr*: base *nīkaramati*, passim.

shṭ becomes *st* in *dipista*, IV, 10, &c.; — and *ṭh* in *aṭha* = *aṣṭa*, XIII, 1.

shṭr is written *st* in *raṣṭikanaṇ*, V, 12.

shṭh is written *ṭh* in *śrēṭha*, IV, 10; *ṭh* in *tiṭhē*, IX, 20, *adhithaṇē*, V, 13; and *st* in *srēsta*, I, 2, and *tistiti*, IV, 10.

shy becomes *ś* in all futures: *anapēśaṇṭi*, III, 7; &c.

sk becomes *k* (and not *kh*) in *jōṭikanaṇḍhani*, IV, 8.

st remains unchanged, whether written with the special sign to which Dr. Bühler appears to have correctly given its true value, or with the group *st*, as in *saṇstuta*, IX, 19.

str remains unchanged: *striyaka*, IX, 18; *istri*° XII, 9: cf. also *vistritēna*, XIV, 13.

sth becomes *th*: *chirathitika*, V, 13; *grahatha*, XIII, 4; and also *ṭh*, *grahaṭhani*, XII, 1.

sm becomes *s* in all locatives in *asi*; but these forms do not properly belong to the language of Kapur di Giri.

sy usually becomes *s*, as in the genitive in *asa*. But we find written *siya* as equivalent to *syāt*, IX, 20; al.

sr remains unchanged: *sahasrāni*, I, 2; &c.

sv is assimilated into *s* in *sagaṇ*, VI, 16; *samikēna*, IX, 19; and written *sp* in *spasunaṇ* (V, 13), if the reading is really certain, and it is not simply a badly written *sv*.

hm becomes *m*: *bramaṇa*, passim.

hy becomes *h* in *mahaṇ* = *mahyaṇ*, V, 11.

(c). — Sandhi.

A final *anuvāra* is changed to *m* in *ēvamēva*, XIII, 9; *paratrikam ēva*, XIII, 11.

In compound words, I have noted:—

a elided before *i*: *bramaṇibhēshu*, V, 12.

a combined with *u* into *ō*: *manuśōpakam*, II, 5.

a elided before *u*: *pajupadanē*, IX, 18.

a elided after *i*: *istridhiyachha*, XII, 9.

u combined with *u* into *ō*: *paśōpakam*, II, 5.

2. — INFLEXION.

(a). — Gender.

Here, as at Girnar, the nominative singular neuter of bases in *a* often ends in *ē*, e. g. IV, 8: *yadisaṇ . . . na bhutapurva tadisē*, &c. Another example of the confusion of gender appears in the plurals *yutani*, III, 7, and *kalinṅani*, XIII, 2 (if indeed it is thus that we

should read). One is tempted to attribute to the same cause the not unfrequent use of the desinence *ô* for *an̄*, *dharmacharaṇô*, IV, 9; *prāṇiveddētavô*, VI, 14, 15; *kaṭavô*, IX, 18, 19; XI, 24; *vatarô*, IX, 19; XI, 24; *śakô*, XIII, 7; *pranatravô*, I, 3, which I take as equivalent to *prānatravān̄*; but the accusatives *imô*, IV, 9; *anudivasô*, I, 2; *śatabhagô*, XIII, 7, and, above all, the nominative *karamitān̄* (for *karamitô*) XI, 24; XII, 4, 6; (perhaps, also, *samitān̄* = *samitô*, VI, 14); *vô* = *ēvan̄* (Bühler, in II, 5), appear to shew that in these cases there is only a mechanical equivalence between the sounds *ô* and *an̄*. There is still, however, *sô*, often used (I, 2; IV, 7; &c.) as a particle, equivalent to *tad*, and which cannot be explained as a mechanical substitute for *toṃ*. It only remains for us to see in it an arbitrary restitution from the Māgadhi *sē*, based on false analogy.

(b). — Declension of Consonantal Bases.

Of this only a few traces survive.

Bases in AN. — Nom. sing. *raja* (*raya*), passim; gen. *rañô*; instr. *rañhā*, XIV, 13; — nom. plur. *rajanô*, XIII, 9. I do not believe in the reading *rajani*.

Bases in AR (RI). — Except the nom. plur. *natarô*, IV, 9; VI, 16, the other forms have adopted the vocalic declension, the bases in *ar* having gone over to the declension in *u*: *pituna*, *bhratuna*, IX, 19; *bhratunān̄*, *spasunān̄*, V, 13; *matapitushu*, passim.

Bases in AS. — Acc. sing. *yaśô*, X, 21. The loc. *varchasi*, VI, 14, can indifferently belong to the base *varcha* or the base *varchas*. *Bhuyô*, VIII, 17, is a Māgadhim for *bhuyô*.

Bases in IN. — *Priyadarśin* has gone over to the declension in *i*: *priyadarśisa*, passim. I note, however, the instr. *priyadarśina*, IV, 10. We have also the nom. plur. *hastinô*, IV, 8.

(c). — Declension of Vocalic Bases.

Bases in A. — **Masculines.** — Here, again, I only note such peculiarities as deserve attention. The nom. sing. regularly terminates in *ô*, which appears to be weakened to *u* in *likhapitu*, I, 1; sometimes it takes the form in *ē*, the Māgadhi termination (*samayē*, I, 2; *dēvanāṃpriyē*, *janē*, X, 21; *mukhazmutē vijayē*, XIII, 8; *Turamayē*, XIII, 9), written *i* in *amiti*, XIII, 9; *erēstamati*, I, 2. — Dat. sing. *aya* written more commonly *ayē* — loc. sing. usu-

ally in *ē*; but often also in *asi*, as in Māgadhi: *mahanasasi*, I, 2; *gaṇanasī*, III, 7; *dharmayutasi*, V, 13; *drôdhanasi*, &c. VI, 14; &c. We find the locative in *ē* written as weakened to *i* in *bhagi anñi*, VIII, 17.

Neuters. — The nominative singular ends in *an̄*, which is several times written *ô*, as I have noted above. I have also pointed out the frequent Māgadhim of the nominative neuter in *e*, which is sometimes written *i*, as in *ghaṭiti*, XIV, 13.

Feminines. — The loc. sing. in *ayē*: *aṭhasaṃhiraṇayē*, VI, 15; *parishayē*, VI, 14.

Bases in I. — **Feminines.** — Dat. sing. in *iya*: *ayatiya*, X, 21; *nivūṭiya*, IX, 19. — Instr. sing. in *iya*: *anuśastiya*, IV, 8. — abl. sing. the same, *tamhāpauṇi*, XIII, 9.

Bases in U. — **Masculines.** — Cf. bases in *AR*.

Feminines. — It is questionable whether *sadhū*, III, 6, 7; IV, 10, represents the feminine, or whether it is not rather the nominative neuter.

Neuters. — Nom. and acc. sing. in *u*: *bahu*, IX, 18, &c. — Nom. plur. in *uni*: *bahuni*, I, 2.

(d). — Declension of Pronouns.

Demonstratives, &c.

Anyā. — Nom. sing. neut.: *amñān̄*, IV, 9; IX, 19. — Dat. sing.: *amñayē*, III, 6; IX, 18. — Loc. sing. *amñi*, VIII, 17. — Nom. plur. masc. *amñē*, V, 13; al.

Ima. — Nom. sing. fem. *ayān̄*, I, 1; al. I have no hesitation in considering that *ayi*, VI, 16, should be read *ayô* = *ayom̄*; neuter, *idam̄*, IV, 10; *iyān̄*, V, 13; XII, 2 (*iyô*); *imān̄*, VI, 16; al. — Gen. sing. *imisa*, III, 6; IV, 10. — Dr. Bühler considers that, in VI, 16, we should read *ēsha* = *ēshān̄*. I doubt this.

Ekatyā. — Nom. sing. masc. *ēkatiē*, I, 2.

Eta. — Nom. sing. masc. *ēshē*, XIII, 8; neut. *ētān̄*, IX, 19; X, 22; *ēshē*, X, 22; perhaps *ēta*, I, 3. — Gen. sing. *ētisa*, III, 6. — Dat. sing. *ēlayē*, passim. — Gen. plur. *ētēsha*, which should probably be read *ēlēshan̄*, XIII, 5.

Ka. — *kichi*, the nom. neut. is of frequent occurrence. — IX, 20, Dr. Bühler reads *kēsha*, which he explains as the gen. plur. This passage should not, however, be considered as having received its definitive analysis.

Ta. — Nom. sing. masc., *sô*, V, 11; al. — Neuter: *tañ*, passim. — *sô*, frequently employed as a particle, when it represents practically the same form: I have already intimated above how this has come about. — Of the other casés, it is sufficient to note *téssha* (*téshan*?) XIII, 6.

Ya. — Nom. sing. masc. *yô*, passim; Fem.: *ya*, XIII, 7, 12. Neuter: *yan*, passim; *yé* IX, 18. — Gen. plur. *yéska* or *yéshan*, XIII, 5. — Loc. plur. *yésu*, XIII, 4.

Sarva. — Nom. sing. neut.: *sarva*, XIV, 13. — Acc. sing. masc. and neut. *sarvan*, VI, 14; VII, 2. — Nom. plur. masc.: *sarvé*, VII, 1; al. — Loc. plur.: *sarvéshu*, V, 13.

Personal Pronouns.

1st person. — Nom. sing. *ahan*, passim. — Gen. sing. *mé*, V, 11; al.; *maha* (*mahan*) V, 11. — instr. *mayā*, VI, 15; al.

(e). — Declension of Numerals.

Duvi, nom. I, 3; II, 4.

Chaturé, nom. masc. XIII, 9.

Pañchashu, loc. III, 6.

Shashu, loc. of *shaṭ*, XIII, 8.

Aṭha, — *aṣṭau*, in composition, XIII, 1.

It seems that the form of the numeral adjective for twelve, was *badaya*, III, 5, and for thirteen, *tidasa*, V, 11.

3. — CONJUGATION.

(a). — Verbal Bases.

Save for phonetic modifications, these have, in general, the usual forms. I only note the presents *upahanṭi*, XII, 6; *prapūṇati* for *prapūṇti*, XIII, 6, and the participle *prayuhótavé*, I, 1, with an irregular extension of the base of the present. *Āha* is transferred to the present under the form *ahati*, never *aha*.

In the passive, the formative affix *ya* follows the ordinary rules in combination: *hanmanṭi*, I, 3; *arabhiśanṭi*, I, 3; *vuchati*, XIII, 8. In *arabhiyisu*, I, 2, it is expanded into *iya*. Cf. *anuvīdhiyīśanṭi*, XIII, 10.

The causal formative affix, *aya* is usually contracted to *é*. Nevertheless, we have, VI, 14, *ṇapayāmi*, by the side of *aṇapēmi* in the following line.

(b). — Terminations.

According to Dr. Bühler, there survives one example of the middle termination in *karōnté*,

IX, 18, but I am very sceptical regarding this reading. Even the passive, as we have just seen, always takes the terminations of the *parasmaipada*.

Potential. — *As* has its 3rd pers. sing. *siya*, X, 22, al., which serves in one passage as base of an anomalous plural *siyasu*, XII, 7, by the side of which appears also *asu*, XIII, 11. The 3rd pers. plur., *éyasu*, instead of the usual *éyu* (*śruṇeyu*, XII, 7; *avatrapéyu*, XIII, 7) also appears in *hanñéyasu*, XIII, 8. The usual formation of the singular is in *éyan*, *éya*; but the form in *é* (Skr. *ét*) appears to have been retained in *tithé*, IX, 20, and *prabhavé*, XIII, 7 (which it does not appear to me to be possible to analyze as a locative).

Past. — 3rd. pers. sing. *nīkrami*, VIII, 17. — The last revisions have revealed the middle form *dipista* (Pāli *dīpittka*) IV, 10; V, 13; VI, 16; XIII, 11, with a passive meaning. The 3rd. plur. usually keeps the *sh*; *nīkramishu*, VIII, 17; *manishu*, XIII, 11; *lōchēshu*, IV, 10. We have, however, also, *arabhiyisu*, I, 2. *Abhavasu*, VIII, 17, is an anomalous formation, due to false analogy.

Future. — It is written everywhere in *īśati* instead of *ishati*. We have, however, *kashati* = *kar(i)shyati*, V, 11. It is doubtful if *achhanṭi*, V, 11, ought to be classed as an irregular future of *as*.

Participle Absolute. — Usually formed in *tu*, e. g. *śrutu*, XIII, 10, and the irregular *vijinitu*, XIII, 2: in *yé* in *saṃkhayé*, XIV, 14. It would appear that we have the termination *ti* in *alōchēti*, XIV, 14, and, if the reading will stand verification, in *tistiti*, IV, 10. I still prefer to explain it, after the analogy of *paritijitu* (X, 22) for *paricha(tya)jitu*, as a contraction of *tya*, rather than as representing the vedic *tvī*, which Dr. Bühler sees in it.

Infinitive. — I note the infinitive forms *dapakan* and *śravakan*, VI, 14.

Participles. — I find the following middle forms of the present participle: *aśamanasa*, VI, 14 and *vijanamani*, XIII, 3.

The Future Participle Passive usually has the termination *taviya*; but *tava* also occurs in *kaṭavamatañ*, VI, 15.

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

(Continued from Vol. XX. page 376.)

XVII. The fifth upāṅga, sūriyapannatti (sūryaprajñapti) bhagavati, in 20 pāhuḍas (prābhṛita) of which 1 has eight, 2 three, and 10 twenty-two subdivisions called pāhuḍapāhuḍa. This strange name pāhuḍa is found beside here only in the puvva contained in the ditthivāa. By the use of this word a special connection between the ditthivāa and this upāṅga is *eo ipso* rendered probable.¹ Cf. also the direct statement in the introduction to up. 7. In discussing aṅga 3 I have remarked (p. 269) that its mention of a sūrapannatti designated as aṅgabāhira had reference to this upāṅga, though it could not be regarded as certain that the present form of this upāṅga was thereby attested for that period. If it is doubtful whether the present form of this up. existed even at the date of the Nandī [402] in which the sūrapannatti also is enumerated among the anaṅgapaviṭṭha texts; but there are two other texts enumerated together with (or immediately after) the sūrap., treating in all probability of the same subject, which are at present discussed in books 1 and 9 (see note 1, pages 406, 407). Perhaps the double mention of the sūrap. in Āvaśy. Nijj. 2, 6 and 8 54, is to be referred still farther back, though it is still *in dubio* whether this mention refers to the present text or not. In the first of these passages, the author says of himself that, besides other texts, he desired to provide both the sūriyapannatti and the isibhāsiya with a nijjutti. If tradition is correct, Bhadrabāhusvāmin is to be regarded as the speaker; and Malayagiri in the commencement of his comm. on uv. 5 makes especial mention of a lost nirukti of Bhadr. on the fifth uvaṅga. In the second passage both of the texts just mentioned² are adduced³ together with the kāliasnam (the 11 aṅgas according to the schol.) and the ditthivāa as the four anuyōgas, i. e. objects of study. In this passage the isibh. occupy the second place, the sūrap. the third, the ditthivāa the fourth. The sūrap. occupies here manifestly a very important position. The importance of the work is in fact very great, as is apparent from the thorough-going report I have made concerning it in Ind. Stud. X. 254—316. In it we find the most remarkable statements concerning the astronomy of the Jains arranged in a systematic form of presentation. [403] Apart from these most peculiar lucubrations, this account is of especial interest inasmuch as it displays remarkably close affiliations with the Vedic calendar-text called Jyōtisham, with the Nakshatrakalpa and the parīśiṣṭas of the Atharva-Vēda. The quinquennial yugam, sun and moon, and especially the 28 nakshatras, are placed in the foreground. The planets are known (Jupiter and Saturn with their periodic times), though they assert a very unimportant position and are not cited in the Greek order. There is no mention whatsoever of the zodiac. The 28 nakshatras begin with Abhijit, and the yugam consequently begins with the summer and not with the winter solstice. The *libido novandi* of the Jains, which has intentionally changed almost entirely everything which they enjoyed in common with the Buddhists or Brāhmans, is here very apparent. In reality, the Jains are but tolerably fitted out with intellectual gifts. In order to conceal and compensate for this lack of originality they seek to possess something that is their individual property, and to attain this end they do not hesitate to indulge in the wildest dreams of fancy. In the province of astronomy they have given full reins to their imagination. The polemical spirit, manifested especially in the sūrap. against other opinions (paḍivatti), proves that they are perfectly aware of the opposition between their own views and those generally accepted. The beginning of the nakshatras with Abhijit as the sign of the summer solstice, [404] which Malayagiri presumably refers back to Pādaliptasūri⁴ (l. 1. 286), pre-supposes Aśvini as the sign of the vernal equinox (l. c. pp. 304, 305). It is

¹ In up. 6 — see p. 414 — a division into vatthus is ascribed, as seems probable, to our text. The name vatthu at least recalls the pūrvas.

² isibhāsiyāmin is explained by the schol. here by uttarādhyayanādmini; on 2, 6 by dēvendrastavādmini. See pages 259, 281, 429, 432, 442.

³ An imitation of this passage is the one quoted from Śīlāṅka on p. 258.

⁴ In the year Vīra 437 according to the thērāvalī of the Kharatarag. see Klatt, p. 23.

based, therefore, upon the rectification of the old *Kṛittikā* series, which had already taken place, and which upon occasion (see 20, 17) appears as the old traditional series. It is an open question whether Greek influence made itself felt in this rectification; at any rate we have to deal here with an indigenous stage of Indian astronomy antecedent to the authoritative and preponderating influence of the Hellenes. It is probable, therefore, that the period opened up to us by these astronomical conceptions, is the period embracing the first few centuries of our era.

G. Thibaut, in two treatises on the *Sūryaprajñapti* in the *Journal As. Soc. Beng.* 1880, pp. 107—127, 181—206, has collected some facts of especial interest in this connection, facts which make for the connection of the contents of the *Sūryapr.* with the corresponding statements in the *Tcheou Pey*, see Ed. Biot in the *Journal Asiatique*, 1841, pp. 592—639, the second part of which Biot holds to be not later than the second century A. D. Thibaut does not attempt any answer to the question whether or not there is here any historical connexion. If such a connection be proved, the Chinese must be regarded as the borrowers, through the medium of Buddhism, with which Jainism was frequently confused by the Chinese. The opposite opinion appears entirely removed from the domain of possibility by the actual facts of the case. [405] The text has been handed down to us contaminated by many corruptions. The numerous *gāthās* contained in it often appear with entirely uninflected noun-forms (used in the nominative or accusative) in *apabhraṃsa* fashion. The nom. sing. of the first declension mostly ends in *o* and not in *e*. The numerals appear in a form that is excessively curtailed. If all these are *peccata ab origine*, they are besides secondary corruptions of the text which are easily traceable. Several *gāthās*⁵ stood originally at the end of several §§ in Book I; the MSS. containing the express statement: *attha . . gāthān bhāṇitavvān*, but the words of the *gāthās* have disappeared. Even Malayagiri is unable to restore them, since they were no longer extant when he wrote: *saṃprati kvā 'pi pustakē na dṛiṣyāntē*, l. c. p. 266a.

The text begins with the legend (and in fact in the customary formula: *tēṇaṃ kālēṇaṃ*) that *Indabhūti*, at the time of king *Jiyasattu* in *Mihilā*, requested that he should be instructed (by *Mahāv.*) in , and then follows in 15 *gāthās*⁶ a complete statement of the contents of the 20 or the 33 sub-divisions in books 1, 2, 10. The redaction is, therefore, the result of the activity of one individual. Books 10 and 15 close with the formula *tī bēmi*, which we met with in the case of *aṅgas* 1—3. Is it possible from this fact to conjecture [406] that originally they existed separately, before the author incorporated them in his work? In I. 3 there is a reference in the text to the *Jambuddivapannatti* which here in turn cites our text. I here reproduce from my treatise cited above a short statement of the contents:

Book I. in 8 chapters, *maṇḍalāi*, the circles traversed annually by the sun,⁷ viz.:—

1. *vaḍḍhāvaḍḍhī muhuttāṇaṃ*, increase and decrease of the number of hours for day and night.
2. *addhamāṇḍalasam̐hī*, the position (of the two suns)⁸ in the semicircle traversed by each daily.
3. *kē tē chinnaṃ pariyaṇā*? how does one sun traverse the space traversed by the other?, and how great is this space?
4. *am̐taraṃ kiṃ charaṃti*? in what intervening space do the two suns course?
5. *ogāhaī kēvaīyaṃ*? how great a surface does each dip into (illuminate)?
6. *kēvaīyaṃ vikampā*? how large a tract does each pass over every day?
7. *maṇḍalāṇaṃ sam̐thāṇē*, the figures of the orbits described by them.
8. *vikkhaṃbhō*, compass and extension of the revolutions of the sun.

⁵ I, 3 states their number to be 140!

⁶ See l. c. pp. 261, 275, 285.

⁷ See the next note and note 1, page 407.

⁸ *maṇḍalappavēsō* is enumerated in the *Nandī* as a separate text.

⁹ See *Colebrooke*, *Miscell.* 2, 223—4 in reference to the two suns of the Jains, etc.

Book II. in three chapters, *tirichchhâ kim gachhai*, how does the sun go sideways ?, viz. : —
[407] 1. Eight different antagonistic opinions in reference to the rising and setting of the sun.

2. Of the passing of the sun from one circle to another, etc.

3. Of the speed of the sun's motion through each of its 184 circles.

Book III. *obhâsai kēvaiyam* ? how much (space) is illuminated (by sun or moon) ?

Book IV. Of the *sēyâ, śvêtatâ*, the luminous body and field of illumination of the sun and moon.

Book V. Of the resistance which is met with by the light of the sun (20 different *prati-pattis*).

Book VI. Of the nature of the sun's light, and of the continuance of the power of its beams.

Book VII. Who draws to himself (absorbs) the light of the sun ?

Book VIII. Of the rising of the sun, or of both the suns, in *Jambudvīpa*, and of the 4, 12, 42, 72 suns in the other *dvīpa*.

Book IX. Of the amount of shade in the different seasons.¹⁰ See *Ind. Stud.* 10, 284

Book X. in 22 chap. (about $\frac{1}{4}$ of the whole). Of the connection of the moon with the *nakshatras*, viz. : —

1. *āvaliya*, the order of succession of the 28 *nakshatras* beginning with *Abhijit*.

2. *muhuttaggê*, the number of hours for the connection of each of the *naksh.* with the moon or with the sun.

[408] 3. *bhâgâ*, the parts of the day or night (or of the heavens) which belong to each of the *nakshatras*.

4. *jâgasâ*, more exact statements in reference to the time of day in which the *nakshatras* come into conjunction with the moon and the length of this conjunction.

5. *kulâim*, the family connections of the *naksh.* with the months.

6. *punnamâsi*, the days of the full moon ; how and with which *nakshatra* these end during each of the five years of a *yuga*.

7. *sanivâê*, the mutual harmonious concatenation of the days of the new and full moon.

8. *san̄thi*, figures of the *naksh.*

9. *târaggam*, number of stars of the *naksh.*

10. *nêtâ*, leader, i. e. which *naksh.* lead which month ?

11. *chamdamagga*, relation of the *nakshatras* to the 15 day-circles of the moon.

12. *dēvatāṇa ya ajjhayaṇê*, the tutelary divinities of the *nakshatras*.

13. *muhuttāṇam nāmayāi*, the names of the 30 *muhūrtas*.

14. *divasarāi*, the names of the 15 days and the 15 nights of the *karmamāsa*, calendar month.

15. *tihî*, *tithayah*, ditto of the lunar month.

16. *gottâ*, the families of the *naksh.*

17. *bhōyaṇāṇi*, the foods which are good during each of the *naksh.* — That the *naksh.* begin here with *Kṛittikâ* (!), is due to the influence of the well-known material that is here treated of.

18. *āichchachâra*, course (of the *naksh.*) with the sun or with the moon during the *yuga*.

[409] 19. *mâsâ*, names of the months of the world and those above the world (*lôkôttara*, chiefly of climatic contents).

¹⁰ *pōrisamāṇḍalam* is cited in *Nandi* as a separate text.

20. pañcha saṁvachharāi, the five years, viz. : —

1. the nakshatra year with 12 periodic months of $327\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{4}$ *vyāthīmerā*.

2. the yuga year, lunar year of $354\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$ *vyāthīmerā*.

3. the paṁāṇa (pra°) year, of which there are five kinds. In addition to the two just mentioned, the ritu year (sāvana) of 360 *vyāthīmerā*, the solar year of 366 *vyāthīmerā*, and the lunar leap-year of $383\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}$ *vyāthīmerā*.

4. the lakṣhaṇa year, divided into the same five groups as above ; there are, however, in addition certain requisites or characteristics.

5. the year of Saturn (30 years), during which Saturn completes his circuit though the 28 naksh.

21. jōisassa sayadārāim, the gates of the nakshatras (in what quarter of the heavens they bring good fortune).

22. nakkhattavijāe (vichayaḥ), transit of the sun and moon through the 28 naksh.

Book XI. Of the beginning of the five lunar years belonging to the yuga.

Book XII. Of the five kinds of year, which were discussed in 10, 20 on paṁāṇasaṁvatsara ; they receive a much fuller treatment here.

Book XIII. Of the waxing and waning of the moon.

Book XIV. When is moonlight the brightest ?

Book XV. Of the rapidity of the five classes of constellations—sun, moon, planets, naksh. and tārā. — According to Leumann cf. also Jiv. 4, 31, 12.

[410] Book XVI. Of the properties of moonlight.

Book XVII. Of the fall (passing away) and uvavāya (resurrection) of the genii of the moon, sun, etc.

Book XVIII. Of the height of the constellations above, and their distance from, the earth — cf. Jiv. 4, 31, 3 (L.)

Book XIX. Of the number of the suns, etc., in Jambudvīpa, etc. ; cf. Jiv. 4, 16, 17, 7, 20, 5 10, 15 21 (L.)

Book XX. Of the nature and substance of the five classes of constellations.

There is a commentary by Malayagiri.

XVIII. The sixth upāṅga, the Jambuddivapannatti.

We have seen (above p. 268) that in the third aṅga 4, 1¹¹ a work of this name was cited, if not as upāṅga, at least as aṅgabāhira. In that aṅga we find the same minute division of time which we meet with here ; hence the existence of this upāṅga is assured even if its present form is different from that then in vogue. In our text upon a definite occasion there is a special reference to up. 5 and up. 7, each of which in turn cites our upāṅga. It is, therefore, probable that these works are synchronistic, supposing that the citations in this instance are not, as usually the case, the work of the redactor.

The legendary introduction to this upāṅga is wholly identical with that which commences [411] upāṅgas 5 and 7, — upāṅgas which are connected by a very close tie. This introduction is inserted between upāṅgas 5 and 7 in a very remarkable manner. Our up. is, however, different from these, in that, like aṅgas 1 — 3, it concludes with the formula ti bēmi, which, it must however, be confessed, is found at the end at least of books 10, 15 ; see p. 405.

There are no sub-divisions in the text itself, whence the Vidhiprapā calls it ēgasarā. The commentary, however, recognizes seven sections which it calls by the strange title of vakshas-kāra.¹²

¹¹ In 3, 1, however, only the titles of upāṅgas 7, 5 (and the title of a part of up. 3) are mentioned. The title of our up. finds there no mention whatsoever.

¹² This recurs e. g. in Hēmaṇsa's nyāyamāñjushā.

The mythical geography of Jambuddiva, interfused with many legends, forms the contents of this upāṅga. The chief part — $\frac{2}{3}$ of the whole — concerns the description of the seven vāsas (varsha) and of the six vāsaharas (varshadhara). The description of Bharaha vāsa which is placed in the fore-front comprises at least $\frac{2}{3}$ of the entire account. The legends of king Bharata, from whom it takes its name, claim a good half of the entire section. The detailed account of Bharaha vāsa in the different gradations of the past and present (in all 4), and in the future (in all 8), is preceded by a minute description of the divisions of time and extent; of which we have already (in aṅga 3) met the first, from āvaliyā to śisapahēliyā (or to usappiṇi) — see above, p. 268. One difference is, however, noticeable: — Here¹³ the increase is by hundreds after the millennium, [412] after 100,000 years by 84's (chaūrāsītivāsasayasahasāim sē ēgē puvvaṃgē), and from this point on by 8,400,000 (chaūrāsītupuvvaṃgasaya . . . sahasāim sē ēgē puvvē); in aṅga 3, however, we find no more exact statement in reference to the manner of the progression¹⁴ (vāsakōḍi 'ti vā, puvvaṃgā ti vā, puvvā ti vā).

As the result of the above we may observe one divergence as regards up. 5, where in book VI. (see Ind. Stud. 10, 282), the word puvva occurred in the signification of a million years, and the increase from that point on (without any special mention of the names in question) simply passing by paliḍvama and sāgarōdvama, up to ḍsappiṇi, merely by 10's.

The enumeration of the 72 kalās in a legend of Usabha is not mentioned in detail; its beginning and end alone being mentioned. The women of the foreign peoples known to us from the Bhagavatī — see p. 302 — are enumerated as servants of king Bharaha: — Tatē naṃ tassa Bharahassa raṇṇō bahūō khuyya¹⁵. Chīlāti-vāmaṇi-vaḍabbhīō Babbari-Vaūsiyāō Jōṇiyā-Palhavīyāō, Isipiyā-Thāruniyā (Thārukīyā, Chārūbhāniyā) Lāsiya Laūsiya Damilī Sīhālī taha Āravī Pulimḍī ya Pakvaṇī Vahali Marumḍī [413] (Mura°, Mur°) Savarīō Pārasīō ya appigatiyāō chaṃḍaṇakalasahatthayayāō . .

According to the commentary, the first four vakshaskāras treat of the following subjects:— The first, of the Bharatakskhētrasvarūpaṃ; the second, of its special relations during the 14 temporal divisions, Bharatakskhētrasvarūpavarṇanaprastāvanāgatāvasarpiny-utsarpiṇidvayarūpa-kālachakravarṇanō nāma; the third, of the legends concerning king Bharata, BharatakskhētrapravṛttinimittāvirbhāvaBharatachakricharitrav. nāma; the fourth, of the remaining 6 vāsas, or 6 vāsaharas,¹⁶ kshudraHimavadādivarshadharaīrāvatāmtavarshavarṇanō nāma. The fifth treats, in legendary form, of the birth and consecration of a tīrthakṛit, tīrthakṛijjanmābhishēkadhikārav. The sixth, unfortunately, gives but a very short review of the divisions, extent, mountains, temples, lakes, rivers, etc., of Jāmbudvīpa, Jāmbudvīpagatapadārthasaṃgrahav¹⁷ The seventh deals with astrological and chronological matters, jyōtishkādhikārav., and especially with the number, etc., of the moons, suns and stars in Jāmbudvīpa. Herein it is in very close agreement with the sūtrapannatti and chaṃḍapannatti, both of which are cited at the end. The answer to the questions under consideration found at the end is based chiefly upon the discussion: pañchamasuē paḍhamē uddēsāē, by which [414] Bhagavatī 5, 1 is doubtless meant. It

¹³ So also in the Anuyōgadvāsasūtra, see Bhag. 1, 427. See Ind. Stud. 13, 168. Ind. Streifen, 3, 3. Pañchadāṇḍachhattrapr. p. 17 in reference to the customary use of the number 84.

¹⁴ According to the scholiast, we must assume that the relations of modality in aṅga 3 are identical with those here:—pūrvāpi pūrvāṅgāny ēva chaturāsītivarshalakshagunītāni; pūrvāni chaturāsītikalakshagunītāni tṛuṣṭāṅgāni bhavānti . . .

¹⁵ kubjāh kubjikā vakrajāṅghāh, Chīlātyah chīlātādēśotpannāh, vāmanikā atyaṃtahrasvonnatahṛidayakoshthā vā, vadabbhikā madahakoshthā vadha(vakrādhaḥ?)kāyā vā; bakusadēsājāh; śinikāh thārukīnikāh; lāsakadēsājāh, lakusadēsājāh; tatra chīlātyādayō 'shāḍasā tattaddēsōdbhavatvēna tattannāmikā jñeyāh, kubjādayas tu tisrō viśeṣanabhūtāh; see Leumann in the glossary to the Anp.

¹⁶ Then follows: 2. The mountain (vāsaharapavvāē) ohulla Himavāntē, 3. in Hēmarvāē vāsē, 4. mount maha-Himavāntē, 5. in Harivāsē vāsē, 6. mount Nisaha, 7. in Mahāvidhē vāsē, 8. mount Nēlavāntē, 9. in Rammāsē vāsē, 10. mount Ruppī (Rukmin), 11. in Hirappavāē vāsē, 12. mount Sīhālī (Sikhari), 13. in Śrāvāē vāsē.

¹⁷ 2½ leaves (75b to 77a) in a MS. of the text embracing 95 leaves, of which the fifth section embraces 66a to 75b. A gāhā, which summarizes the contents, forms the introduction. This gāhā is at the head of a saṃghayaṇi in 29 āryā composed in very free Prākṛit, by Haribhadrasūtri. See above, pp. 371, 372.

closes in treating of the sun: ichch êsâ Jambuddivapannatti sūrapannattivatthusamāsêṇaṃ samattā bhavati. Then, in close conjunction with the above, it, in like manner, treats of the moon, and concludes: ichch êsâ Jaṭṭi chaṇḍapannattivatthusamāsêṇaṃ s. bh. The expression vatthu, which occurs here twice, belongs to the puvva sections — see page 361. It does not occur in the existing texts of upāṅgas 5 and 7, which are divided into pāhuḍas, a term which, it must be confessed, is similar to the pūrvas. Next follows a discussion in reference to the five different kinds of year (see above p. 409), viz.: — 1. The nakkhatta year (and by this is meant the revolution of Jupiter through the 28 nakshatras;¹⁸ in up. 5 (see *Ind. Stud.* 10, 290), this is cited merely as a pakshāntaram. 2. The lunar yuga year. 3. The paṇḍa year with its five groups as in up. 5. 4. The lakṣhaṇa year in five groups. The scholiast says that in the first of the five, the nakshatra year, the commencement is made with Kṛittikā and not with Abhijit! The scholiast on up. 5 at least makes mention of Uttaraśāḍhās — cf. *Ind. Stud.* 10, 301, note 7. 5. The year of Saturn or its revolution through the 28 nakshatras. Then follow the months, days, hours and the karaṇa, which last was omitted in up. 5. The fourth karaṇam is here called thivilōṇa, strivilōchana, or thilōṇa (so also in the Gaṇaviyyā v. 42) and not taitila. The names are as usual: — Bayaṃ bālavē kōlavāṃ thivilōṇaṃ [415] garāi vaṇijaṃ viṭṭhi (these 7 are chara) saṇṇi chaṭṭappaṇa nāgaṃ kiṇṭṭhugghaṃ (these 4 are thira). The beginning with Bava is the one which usually occurs elsewhere; but in the quinquennial yugam, contrary to other statements, everything has been changed. Of the two ayaṇas the summer solstice is in the first place, the rainy season is first among the seasons, Sāvaṇa (Śrāvaṇa) first among the months, the bahulap. among the pakṣha, the day among the aḥoratta, and Abhijit among the nakshatras. Then follows a special discussion of the nakshatras, — their position as regards the moon, their divinities, the number of their stars, their gotta, their form, etc., just as in the Nakshatrakalpa or in upāṅga 5; and partly in the form of gāhā. The names of the nakshatras appear here in their secondary form as in up. 5, in aṅga 3 — see *Ind. Stud.* 10, 286, and above p. 268: — Savana (instead of Śrōṇā), Dhariṭṭhā (instead of Śravishtā), Bhaddavayā (instead of Prōshṭhapadā), Pussa (instead of Tishya). The conclusion is formed by all sorts of remarkable statements in reference to sun, moon, stars, the extent of their vimāna, etc.; Mars (iṃgālaē viyālaē lōhitamkē) and Saturn (saṇichharē) are regarded as belonging to the court of the moon; cf. Bhagavati 1, 401. 2, 225. Jupiter was referred to above; but there is no mention of Mercury, Venus, and the zodiac.

The commentary is by Sāntichandra, scholar of Sakalachandra, who lived at the time of the 58th patriarch of the Tapāgachha, Hīravijayasūri († Saṃvat 1652), recognized by śrī-Akabbarsuratrāṇa (Sultan). This commentary¹⁹ is very verbose, but in the introduction it contains numerous matters of interest in reference to the relations of each of the [416] 12 upāṅgas to that one of the aṅgas which had a corresponding position among the series of twelve, and in reference to the commentaries thereupon — Sīlāṃkāchārya (on aṅga 1. 2), Abhayadēva (on aṅga 3 — 11 and up. 1), Malayagiri (on up. 2 — 7), Chāṇḍrasūri (on up. 8 — 12), and finally — see above p. 224 — in reference to the period of advancement suitable for the study of each of the aṅgas. The full statement in reference to the mutual relation of the aṅgas and upāṅgas is: — tatrā 'mgaṇi dvīdaśa, upāṅgaṇi api aṃgaikadēśaprapaṃcharūpaṇi prāyaḥ pratyāṅgam ēkaikabhāvāt tāvaṃty ēva, tatrā 'mgaṇi āchāraṃgādīni pratitāni, teshāṃ upāṅgaṇi kramēṇa 'muni: āchāraṃgasyau "papātikam 1, sūtrakṛidaṃgasya rājaprasāṇyaṃ 2, sthānāṃgasya jīvābhigamaḥ 3, samavāyāṃgasya prajnapanā 4, bhagavatyāḥ sūryaprajnapatiḥ 5, jnātādharmakathāṃgasya jambūdvīpaprajnapatiḥ 6, upāsakadaśāṃgasya chaṇḍraprajnapatiḥ 7, aṃtakṛiddaśāṃgādikānāṃ dṛiṣṭivādaparyāmtānāṃ paṃchānāṃ apy aṃgānāṃ nirayāvalikāśrutaskāṃdhagatakālpikā-dipaṃchavargāḥ paṃchō 'pāṃgaṇi, tathā hi: aṃtakṛiddaśāṃgasya kalpikā 8, anuttarōpapātika-

¹⁸ jaṃ vā vahassaḥ mahaggahē dūvālasahin saṃvaohharīhim savvanakkhattamaṇḍalaṃ saṃchārī sē tam nakkhattasaṃvaohharē.

¹⁹ The date of its composition is Saṃvat 1651 (A. D. 1595); the work was, however, revised for Vijayasēna nine years later.

daśāṅgasya kalpāvatamsikā 9, praśnavyākaraṇasya puṣpita 10, vipākāśrutasya puṣhpachūlikā 11, dṛiṣṭivādasya Vṛiṣṇidaśā 12, iti.

XIX. The seventh upāṅga, chaṁdapannatti.

We have, before, frequently observed that a text of this name is twice cited in aṅga 3, and in conjunction with texts whose titles belong to upāṅgas 5, 6, or to a portion of up. 3; that the order of succession of the titles in aṅga 3 (7, 5, 6) does not agree with the present position of these texts, viz. the title of the chaṁdapannatti is there, and, in fact, in both the passages which concern this matter, placed before the others. The chaṁdapannatti is cited in the text of up. 6, as before remarked. [417] Taking these facts into consideration, it is in the highest degree remarkable that the existing text is almost completely identical with that of up. 5, differing from it, for example, in about the same way as the two schools of the white Yajus differ from each other. The introduction is, however, quite different. The beginning consists of 4 āryā strophes, of which 1 and 2 sing the praises of Vira etc.; v. 3 characterizes the work in the same words as are found in up. 4, introd. v. 3 and 5, i. e. as puvvasuyasāraṇisaṁdam — see p. 394 — and v. 4 traces back the jōisarāyapannatti to the questions of Gōtama Iṁdabhūti. Then follow upon these four strophes the same 15 verses in an interrogatory tone, which in up. 5, too, state the contents of the 20 separate divisions (pāṇḍa) and subdivisions pāṇḍa-pāṇḍa. From this we can draw the conclusion that there is complete identity of subject and method of treatment. The legendary introduction, which refers the whole to a conversation between Mahāvira and Indrabhūti, follows upon these 15 verses, and displays a few minor differences. From this point on, the text is similar to, and in fact, almost identical with, that of up. 5, with the exception of a few linguistic (e. g. rāi, night, for rayañi, ratañi, rajañi) and stylistic differences. Our text is, here and there, somewhat briefer, which is compensated for by references to up. 3 and 6, which are lacking in up. 5. An exact comparison of the text of each will doubtless disclose many matters of difference between the two. Nevertheless, the inter-relation of the two is a fact, the remarkable character of which [418] is enhanced when we consider that Malayagiri composed a special commentary on this upāṅga also, which was essentially the same as that composed by him on up. 5, and that in neither of his commentaries does he say anything in reference to the mutual relation of both texts and commentaries. (The statement just made appears to be correct, though I have not made here an examination of Malayagiri's com. *ad amussim*).

Until new facts come to light that will solve this mystery, we must be content to accept the present situation. In the passage in up. 6 in which up. 5 and 7 are cited — see above, p. 414 — the text reads as if the first had reference solely to the sun, the second solely to the moon. Our texts of up. 5 and 7, however, treat both uniformly and in a completely similar manner.

XX. — XXIV. The eighth to the twelfth upāṅgas, nirayāvaliyāō, nirayāvalikās.

Under this collective name are comprised five small texts of legendary contents (vaggas) in one "śrutaskandha." The first of these either has the special title of "śrutaskandha," or is called kappiyāō, kalpikās. The titles of the others are kappavaḍaṁsiyāō, pupphiyāō, pupphachūliyāō or 'chūlāō, Vanhidasāō. Each of the first four has 10, the fifth 12 ajjhayaṇas.²⁰ In the introduction to the first, all these five texts are characterized — see 372, 373 — as uvaṅgaṇaṁ pañcha vaggā. We have seen above that this epithet recurs in the interior of no other one of the texts held to be upāṅgas. [419] It must, therefore, be deemed a probable supposition, if we assert that this epithet at the time of the composition of these five texts was restricted to them alone in their totality since they belonged together from the very beginning. Their present position at the end of the 12 upāṅgas is to be explained by their legendary contents, which shows them to be perfectly adapted to serve as a pendant to the

²⁰ Āvi. and Svi. : aṁtagaḍadasāḍipañchanhaṁ aṅgaṇaṁ nirayāvaliyā-suakkhaṁdhō uvaṅgaṇaṁ, tammi pañcha vaggā : kappiyāō kappavaḍaṁsiyāō pupphiyāō pupphachūliyāō vanhidasāō, chaṁsu dasa ajjhayaṇa, pañchamaṁ bārasa.

legendary texts of aṅgas 7-11;²¹ and tradition has — see pp. 373, 416 — brought them into connection with these aṅga texts and especially with 8-12. They share with these not merely the common form of legendary introduction; they are referred back to Sudharman and Jambū; they have the names ukkhēva and nikhēva, usual in the customary introductory and concluding formulæ; they shew the division of each into ten ajjhayanās, and lastly they have the same form of the citation of a text, *i. e.* the first ajjh. only is quoted entire, and the catch-words suffice for those that follow. We may well call them an appendix bound to aṅgas 7-11 by a very close tie. Their interconnection is, furthermore, attested by external evidence: — Their names are placed together in the enumeration of the anaṅgapaviṭṭha texts in the Nandī, though the order of succession varies somewhat, the series there being 20, 22, 21, 23, 24, while between 20 and 22, as a separate text, the kappiyāḍ are inserted, which in the Vidhiprapā, [420] as in Śāntichandra on up. 6, see p. 416, appear merely as the name of the first of these 5 upāṅgas. In the scholiast on the Nandī, however, and in the Nandī itself they are regarded as an independent text existing by the side of the other five: narakāvāsās tadgāminasā chanarā yatra varṇyamtē; kalpikāḥ saudharmādikalpavaktavyatāgocharā grānthapaddhatayaḥ; ēvaṁ kalpāvatamsikā jñeyāḥ; yās tu grihavāsamukulana(!)tyāgēna jīvāḥ saṁyamabhāvapushpitā bhūṣitā bhūyas tattyāgatō duḥkhāvāptimukulēna mukulitās tattyāgataḥ pushpitāḥ pratipādyamntē tāḥ pushpitāḥ; tadvisēṣhapratipādikāḥ pushpachūḍāḥ; Āmḍhaka-Vṛishṇidaśānām siddhigamanādīla-kṣaṇānām pratipādakā grānthapaddhatayaḥ.

In the account of Rāj. Lāla Mitra, l. c. (above, p. 227), there is no mention of the Vanhidasāḍ, nirayāvalī and kappiyā are enumerated as two separate upāṅgas (8 and 9), and Kappavaḍimsayā, Pupphiyā, Pupphachūliyā as Nos. 10-12. In Kashinath Kunte's report the order is nirayāvalikā, Vanhidasā, Kappavaḍimsiyā, Pupphiyā, Pupphachūliyā.

It must, furthermore, be noticed that Abhayadēva on aṅga 3, 10 is of the opinion that several of the 10 ajjh. of the dīhadāsā cited there are especially closely connected with the narakāvalisrutaskandha — see pp. 273, 423ⁿ. If this is the case, it supports the probability that the contents is of ancient date, which is indeed great on other grounds. The relation of the five extant texts is as follows: —

XX. up. 8, *uvamāṅgaṁ paḍhamē vaggē, the nirayāvaliyāḍ, or kappiyāḍ*, treats of the ultimate fortunes of the ten princes Kāla etc.,²² sons [421] of the Aṅga king Sēṇiya of Chāmpā. These princes accompanied their half-brother Kūṇiya²³ in his campaign against his grandfather, Chēḍaga of Vēsālī, the Vidēha king, who refused to deliver up the own brother of Kūṇiya who had fled to his court. Kūṇiya on this account had declared war against Chēḍaga, who, in order to meet the impending danger, summoned nine Mallatī (Mallakī) and nine Lechhati (Lichchhavi) kings and all 48 Kāśī-Kōsalayā gaṇarāyānō (cf. Bhagav. 7, 9, p. 301), and opposed 57,000 elephants, etc., to the 33,000 of the eleven princes (3,000 for each). The mothers²⁴ of the ten princes, Kālī, etc. (see aṅga 8, above, p. 321), each ask in turn of Mahāvīra whether they are destined to behold their sons alive again. Mahāvīra in reply not only informs Iṁḍabhūti into what hell each must descend after he has fallen in the battle — hence the title of the upāṅga — and his future fate, but also relates the antecedent history of king Kūṇiya himself, beginning at that point when his mother was three months pregnant. The expulsion of his father Sēṇiya from the throne at his hands is then related and his father's death in prison. We possess in its complete form the text of the first ajjh. alone, the second being finished off in six, the remaining eight in two lines.

The reader is referred to Jacobi's introduction to the kalpas. p. 2 for Sēṇiya Bhimbhisāra,²⁵ *i. e.*

²¹ As regards aṅga 10 I have mentioned on page 329 my conjecture that from the inter relation of up. 8-12 and aṅgas 7-11 we have additional testimony for the view that aṅga 10 too originally possessed a legendary character. See, however, p. 334 n.¹

²² Kālī, Sukālī, Mahākālī, Kaṇhā, Sukāṇhā, Mahākāṇhā, Virākāṇhā, Rāmākāṇhā, Prusēṇākāṇhā, Mahāsēṇākāṇhā.

²³ Son of Chellanā, wife of Paumāvālī.

²⁴ Stepmothers, chullamānā, of Kūṇiya.

²⁵ See ajjh. 10 of the daśāsrutaskandha.

Śrēṇika Bimbisāra, and his son Kūṇiya Bāmbhasāraputta,²⁶ i. e. Ajātasatru, [422] contemporaries of Buddha, and also in reference to the synchronistic conclusions which may be drawn in reference to Mahāvīra. It is placed beyond the shadow of a doubt, that the Bauddhas and the Jainas possess herein a common heritage, and that genuine historical traditions form the foundation of the recital. Whether it is necessary to separate Mahāvīra from Buddha is another question — cf. Bhagav. 1, 441. The traditional connection of Mahāvīra with Nātiputta, Buddha's opponent, can also be regarded as the result — cf. p. 240 — of an intentional variation caused by sectarian hatred. The Nirayāvalī has been edited by S. Warren, Antwerp, 1879, on which see H. Jacobi in *Journ. Germ. Orient. Soc.* 34, 178 ff. There is a commentary by Chandrasūri.

The enumeration of the women of non-Āryan peoples,²⁷ distinguished in the text merely by vahūhiṃ khuyyāhiṃ jāva, is quoted by Chandrasūri in the same form which we meet with in Bhag. 9, 33 (see p. 302), etc. The citation jahā Chittō tti, points to up. (2), jahā Pabbhāvati to aṅga 5, 11.

XXI. up. 9. varga 2, kappāvaḍaṃsīaṇ, kalpavataṃsīkāḥ, treats of the ten sons²⁸ of prince Kāla, etc., all of whom were converted to asceticism, as were their grandmothers Kālī etc., and who [423] reached their respective heavens.²⁹ The account consists almost entirely of mere catch-words or of references. Emphasis is often laid upon the study of the sāmāia-m-ādīhiṃ ekkārasa aṃgāhiṃ.

XXII. up. 10. varga 3, pupphīaṇ, pushpikāḥ (or °tāḥ), treats, with reference to up. 2, of the ten gods or goddesses³⁰ who came from their heavenly worlds³¹ to pay reverence to Mahāvīra, who thereupon tells to Gōyama their previous history. They were in a former birth all turned or converted to the study of the sāmāia-m-ādīhiṃ ekkārasa aṃgāhiṃ, either by the arhant Pāsa or by the Ayya Suvvatā or by the thērā bhagavaṃtō (see up. 3). These former births, as māhaṇa, gāhāvati, satthavāhā etc., occurred in Sāvattthī, Vāṇḍarasi (!), Maṇivaiā, Vemḍā-vaṇḍā, Mihilā, Hatthiṇapura, Kākamūḍī. The enumeration of the Brāhmanical sciences here is similar to that in the Bhagavatī (above, p. 303); and their names are similarly explained by the scholiast.

XXIII. up. 11. varga 4, pupphachūlāḥ, pushpachūḍas;³² ten other histories of a similar nature. We possess the first alone, the Bhātā nāmaṃ dāriā, former birth of the Siridēvi,³³ is brought by Pāsa to believe in the niggamthaṃ pāvayaṇaṃ. The other histories have entirely disappeared with the exception of the names, [424] which are found³⁴ in the gāhā in the introduction; the goddesses (not gods) who are here mentioned are for the most part mere personifications of ethical qualities.

XXIV. up. 12. varga 5, Vaṇhidasāḥ, Vṛishṇidasās, in 12 ajjhayaṇas; 12 similar histories, of which we possess none but the first, the mere names by which the others were called having been

²⁶ See introduction to up. 2. More exact information in reference to his history is found in the scholiast on Āvaśy. 18, 144, cf. Bhag. 7, 9 (Leumann).

²⁷ Kubjikābhīḥ vakrajaṣṭhābhīḥ, chilātībhīḥ anāryadēśotpannābhīḥ, vāmanābhīḥ brahmasārīrābhīḥ vadabhābhīḥ madanakoṣṭhābhīḥ, Varvarībhīḥ Varvaradēśasambhavābhīḥ, Vakusīkābhīḥ Yōnakābhīḥ Paphavikābhīḥ Isinikābhīḥ Chārūkinikābhīḥ Lāsikābhīḥ Dravīḍībhīḥ Sīmahābhīḥ Āravībhīḥ Pakvaṇbhīḥ Vahābhīḥ Murudbhīḥ Savarībhīḥ Pārasbhīḥ nānādēśābhīḥ vahnūvidhānāryaprayadēśotpannābhīḥ; cf. p. 412.

²⁸ Paṃmē, Mahāpaṃmē, Bhaddē, Subhaddē, Mahābhaddē, Pāṃmabhaddē, Pāṃmasēṇē, Pāṃmagummē, Nallīṇigummē, Āpaṃdē, Naṃdāṇē (but this makes 11 names! Is one to be referred to a son of Kūṇiya?)

²⁹ Seated in the Kalpavataṃsaka Vimāna, Kashinath K.

³⁰ Chāṇḍējōsindhē, Sūrē, Sukkē, mahāgahē (planet Venus), Bahuputtī, Punnabhaddē, Māṇibhaddē, Dattē, Sivē, Balē, Apāḍhitā; four of these names, see p. 273, among those of the dīhadāsāṇ.

³¹ Seated in the celestial chariot (Pushpaka), Kashinath.

³² Contains an account of the female disciple of Mahāvīra Svāmi, named Pushpachūlā, and of her female attendant, Kashinath.

³³ See p. 273 n.

³⁴ sirī, hiri, dhiti, kiṭṭhi, vuddhi, lajjā, ilā dēvi, surā dēvi, sarassā dēvi, gaṇḍhadēvi; — The Siridēvi comes to honor Mahāvīra . . . jāḥ Bahuputtī.

preserved.³⁵ The conversion of twelve princes of the race of Vṛishṇi is here treated of as having ensued through the influence of the arhan Aritṭhanēmi. The first history deals with Nisadhā, son of Baladēva, nephew of king Kaṇha-Vāsudēva in Bāravatī.³⁶ In his former birth he was converted or turned to the study of the sāmāna-m-ādīai ekkārāsa aṅgām by the Siddhatthā-nāmañ āyariyā. A prophecy in reference to his futuro birth is added to the above recital. At the end the five texts are again called the "uvaṅgāṇi" or the 5 Vargas of one śrutaskandha: nirayāvaliāsutakkhaṁdhō samattō, samattāṇi a uvaṅgāṇi, nirayāvaliā-uvamṅē ṇaṁ ēgō suakkhaṁdhō pañcha vaggā pañchasu divasēsu uddissaṁti.

This last statement in reference to the number of days which are necessary to teach or to recite them, is found [425] in exactly the same form in the corresponding aṅgas — see p. 280. The three sāmāyāris, contain detailed statements in reference to each.

The historical value of these legends is, apart from the traditions contained in up. 8, without doubt very slight indeed. The largest portion of their contents is as purely fictitious as was the case in aṅga 6 fg. (see p. 338). Nevertheless, since they contain information (*e. g.* in respect to the activity of Pāsa, which preceded that of Mahāvīra), we may claim for them a value as regards our estimation of the relations under which we have to consider the life and works of Mahāvīra.

We have seen above that the uniformity of the contents, and the homogeneous method of treating it in all the five texts, make for the conclusion that they originally formed but one text. Tradition calls them merely the five parts of one śrutaskandha. Their enumeration as five separate texts was caused by the desire to have the number of the uvaṅgas correspond to that of the aṅgas. The fact is that the special limitation of the number of the aṅgas to eleven, which is found in uv. 8-12, must be regarded as a strange contradiction of the desire to assimilate the number of the uvaṅgas to that of the aṅgas. The title vagga belongs also to aṅgas 6 and 8, as an appendix or supplement to the latter of which two, these five texts may have come into existence. The history of the first vagga here (uv. 8-12) is, to a certain extent, an elucidatory supplement to the last of the vaggas there, *i. e.* in aṅga 8.

FOLKLORE IN SALSETTE.

BY GEO. FR. D'PENHA.

No. 11. — Francis and his Uncle.

There was an old woman who had an only son, called Francis.¹ They were in rather poor circumstances, and lived on what the old woman earned during the day. Francis had a maternal uncle, who was very rich and possessed much land and several bullocks and cows.

One day, when the boy was old enough, his maternal uncle called on his sister, and asked her to send the lad to take his cattle to graze, promising to give him something as pay. His sister told him that the boy was mischievous, and said he had better ask him himself to agree to the proposal. His uncle, therefore, called the boy, and said to him: — "Francis, will you come and take my cattle to graze every day? I will give you something in return."

"Yes, I will come," said Francis. "Will you give me a cow as pay, uncle?"

His uncle promised to give him a cow, and Francis went daily and took his uncle's cattle to graze. Every day Francis asked for his cow, but his uncle put him off, saying: —

"I will give you one to-morrow."

³⁵ Nisadhē, Mahānisadhē, Anigahē, Vēdē, Pagati, Juttī, Dasarahē, Daḍharahē, Mahādhanū, Sattadhanū, Dasadhanū, Sayadhanū.

³⁶ At the head of 10 Dasāra: Samuddavijaya etc., 5 Mahāvīra: Baladēva etc., 16,000 kings: Uggasēna etc., 3½ kōṭi of kumāra: Payyanna etc., 60,000 duddanta (?) : Sambaya etc., 21,000 vīra: Vīrasēna etc., 16,000 dēvi: Ruppini, etc., and many thousand gaṇiā: Ayaṅgasēṇā etc. The same court is found according to Leumann in aṅga 6, p. 526, 1231, and aṅga 8, 1.

¹ The original is Farānsiā, a familiar local form of Francis.

After several days, the uncle, finding Francis importunate, one day said to him : — "There are a lot of cows here, you can choose one for yourself."

Upon this Francis chose a cow for himself, and every day fed her with half of his own rations, which made her grow plump and fat. Now his uncle observed that, while his own cattle remained as before, Francis' cow was growing fat and beat them all in beauty. He soon became jealous, and considered how he might deprive the lad of his cow.

So one evening he came and said to him : — "Well, Francis, my boy, I'll give you a holiday to-morrow, and I will look after the cattle myself."

But Francis said : — "No, uncle, I don't care for a holiday. I will be at my usual work."

His uncle, however, pressed him much, saying : — "Francis, you are yet a child, and you require some rest. So listen to me and take a holiday."

So Francis was at last persuaded to take a holiday, but he asked his uncle to take care of his cow, which, of course, his uncle promised to do.

In the morning the uncle took his cattle for grazing, as also Francis' cow. While his cattle were grazing he drove the cow up a high mountain and from there threw her into the river below, and the cow died at once, and the uncle was satisfied, and taking his own cattle he came home in the evening.

The following day, as soon as Francis arose, he went as usual to his daily work, but to his astonishment found his cow missing. He ran to his uncle and asked him where his cow was. His uncle said : — "Look in the stalls ; she must be somewhere among the other cattle."

Francis went to the stalls and searched among all the cattle, but in vain, and therefore suspected foul play. Instead of taking his uncle's cattle to graze, he left them in the stalls, and went all over the forests in quest of his own cow. He searched and searched, and, at last, found the carcass of his cow in the river. Poor Francis sat down by the poor cow and cried for hours and hours, but he made sure that the death of the cow was due to nothing else than his uncle's envy.

Seeing that crying would not bring his cow back to life, he made up his mind to skin the cow, so that the skin might some day be of use to him. So he at once set to work, and, dragging the carcass to the bank of the river, skinned it and dried it in the sun for several days.

When the skin was thoroughly dried, he asked his mother one day to bake him three or four hand-cakes, but she said : — "There is scarcely flour enough to make one cake ; and how am I to bake three or four for you ?"

Francis, however, bothered her so often that his mother went and begged some rice-flour, and baked four cakes, and gave them to him. Francis tied up the cakes in a kerchief, and, taking the cow's skin, went away. He walked on and on, uncertain where to go, or what to do, for a whole day, and when it was dusk he found himself in a large forest, and here he meant to pass the night ; but being afraid that some wild beast might see and devour him, he climbed up a high tree, not forgetting to take the skin also with him.

At dead of night it happened that some robbers, who had plundered a rich house, came and sat under that very tree, and, having thrown down their booty, began to divide it, and to quarrel between themselves,

Said one : — "I deserve the greatest share because I shewed you the house,"

"No, no," said a second ; "I entered the house first, while you remained outside, and so the biggest share falls to my lot."

And so they went on quarrelling, till our hero got so frightened that he let fall the cow's hide from the tree, which made such a noise, and in its turn so frightened the robbers, that they left everything and took to their heels, thinking some evil spirits had seen them and were coming on them.

Our hero, when he saw the robbers had run away, came down, took all the treasure the robbers had left, and went home in high spirits. When he reached his hut, he told his mother to go to her brother's house, and ask for the loan of his *pharā ani dāṇḍā* (basket and spade). His mother told him to go himself; but Francis pleaded, saying: — "Go, go, mother, and ask for uncle's basket and spade."

His mother at last went to her brother's home, and asked for the loan of his basket and spade. Her brother said to her: — "Sister, why do you want the basket and spade? What are you going to do with them?"

She replied: — "Francis wants them. The boy is so mischievous. I don't know what he wants to do with them."

So his mother took the basket and the spade from her brother and brought them to Francis. Francis took them and measured all the treasure he had got, which made several baskets full. But on returning the basket and the spade, he let two rupees stick to the basket for his uncle to see, and when he saw the two rupees in the basket, he asked his sister how they came there. She told him that Francis had brought a heap of treasure, which he measured it with the basket. When the uncle heard this he immediately came to Francis and asked him how he got all the treasure, upon which Francis said: — "Oh uncle, what shall I tell you? Shall I say one, or shall I say two?"

His uncle then said: — "Go on, my boy, tell me where you got the treasure from."

Francis then replied: — "Why, uncle, you remember you killed my cow? I am so thankful to you for it. I skinned the cow, dried the hide, and cried it for sale: —

"Jhiā chāmbrāṁ, diā dhan; jhiā chāmbrāṁ diā dhan."

Take hides, give treasure; take hides, give treasure."

"There is such a demand for these hides, that for the hide of one cow I got all this treasure. O uncle, if I had half the number of cattle that you have, I should get a heap of treasure as large as your house."

His uncle was so fired with the desire of amassing treasure, that he went and slaughtered all his cattle, believing every word that his nephew had told him. In due time the cattle were skinned, and the hides having been thoroughly dried, he went from village to village and from country to country, crying out: —

"Jhiā chāmbrāṁ, diā dhan; jhiā chāmbrāṁ diā dhan."

Take hides, give treasure; take hides, give treasure."

But who ever heard of exchanging hides for treasure? The poor man wandered day and night for several weeks, and made himself the laughing-stock of every one. Quite fatigued and disheartened, he returned home. His wife asked him what success he had met with, but he only said: — "Oh, you don't understand these affairs; mind your own business."

He was so enraged at the trick, that he determined to ruin Francis, and with this determination one night set fire to the boy's hut. His poor mother ran about like one mad, calling the people to help in putting out the fire. Francis, on the contrary, brought more sticks and other combustibles, and put them on the flames, which helped to burn down the hut quickly and surely.

When the hut was entirely burnt down, Francis collected all the ashes in two bags. He then told his mother again to bake him a few cakes, which his mother did with some reluctance, saying: — "I can't understand, Francis, where you want to go, or what you are trying to do?"

But he bundled the cakes into a kerchief, and, having borrowed a bullock from one of his neighbours, put the two bags of ashes on it, and drove it away. This time, too, he was uncertain

what to do or where to go for a whole day, and at dusk he was again in a forest where he met a great merchant also driving a bullock with two bags on it. They asked each other who they were and where they were going and what they had. The merchant replied first: — "I am a merchant, and the bags you see on the bullock are full of gold mohars, which I have earned in my trade."

Francis turned this opportunity to his advantage, and said: — "Exactly like myself. I have amassed a large fortune in the shape of gold mohars in the bags which you see on my bullock, and I am now returning home after several months' business."

The merchant believed every word he said, and so they agreed to put up together for the night, and arranged between them to watch their property by turns. The merchant had to watch till midnight, and then go to sleep, after which it was Francis' turn to watch. Meanwhile they removed the bags from the bullocks to give them rest. Having partaken of their meals, Francis went to sleep while the merchant kept watch. About midnight the merchant awoke Francis and told him it was time for him to keep watch.

"Certainly," said Francis; "we must, however, put our bags on our respective bullocks, for, should any robbers come, what can I do alone? While if we have them ready on the bullocks, I can awake you and we can then escape with all haste."

The merchant thought the proposal reasonable, and so each put his bags on his bullock, and then the merchant fell fast asleep, being quite tired with the journey and the night-watch.

In a little while Francis changed the bags, and drove home in all haste, and when he got home again he asked his mother to go to her brother's house and borrow his *phard ani dāddā*. His mother at first refused to go, telling him to go himself; but at last she went, and said to her brother: — "Brother, brother, lend me your basket and spade."

"Why do you want the basket and spade?" asked her brother.

"The boy wants them," replied she. "I don't know what he is trying to do."

So Francis' uncle then gave her the basket and the spade, which she took home and gave to her son. Francis then measured all the gold mohars, which made several baskets full, and in returning the basket and the spade Francis purposely left two mohars in the basket. On seeing them his uncle came in all haste and asked Francis where he got the mohars from. Francis thought this a good opportunity for taking his revenge, and calmly said: — "Why, uncle, didn't you set fire to my hut? I gathered the ashes and sold them for several baskets full of gold mohars. Oh, if I only had a house like yours, what a lot of mohars it would fetch! You have only to say:—

"*Jhiā bhūrā, diā mōrā; jhiā bhūrā, diā mōrā.*

Take ashes, give mohars; take ashes, give mohars."

"Hundreds and thousands of people will flock to you bringing their mohars and taking your ashes."

His uncle was again duped, and went and set fire to his large house. His wife was, of course, alarmed at this action, but her husband said: — "Oh, you don't understand these affairs; you mind your own business."

The whole house was reduced to ashes, which he collected and put into several bags. As he had killed all his cattle, he was obliged to borrow bullocks from others for the conveyance of the ashes. Having put the bags on the bullocks, he drove them from village to village and from town to town, crying at the top of his voice: —

"*Jhiā bhūrā, diā mōrā; jhiā bhūrā, diā mōrā.*

Take ashes, give mohars; take ashes, give mohars."

Thus he cried and cried his ashes for days and weeks together, with the result, that he tired himself out and was hooted by all as a fool; for what folly is greater than to ask for mohars in

exchange for ashes? At last he went home quite sick and tired. His wife again asked him what success he had had, but he only said: — "Oh, you don't understand these affairs; you mind your own business."

He now thought of how to punish Francis for his mischief, and hit upon the following plan. He called him one day, bound his hands and feet, and tied him in a sack with the object of throwing him in the river. As he was going with the sack with Francis in it, he felt a pain in his stomach. Round about him were a lot of cow-herds, so putting the burden down, he went to a long distance to relieve his pain. In the meantime Francis pretended to be crying, and kept saying: — "Oh, I do not wish to be married! I am yet young, and the girl is so big! What a shame, my uncle wants me married by compulsion."

One of the cow-herds, who heard what Francis said, asked him to explain what it all meant. So he said: — "Look here, I am so young, and because I do not wish to be married, as the girl is too big for me, my uncle is taking me by force."

Upon this the cow-herd said: — "If that be the case let me take your place."

"Agreed," said our hero; and he was immediately let out of the sack, and was replaced by the cow-herd. Francis, once out of the bag, took the cattle belonging to the cow-herd, and drove them home in safety.

His uncle came after a time, and taking up the sack, marched straight to the mountain, and threw the bag headlong from a precipice into the river, highly elated at the thought that he had at last got rid of Francis. That day passed and on the following morning he saw Francis driving a large herd of cows and buffaloes. He was at his wits' ends to understand how Francis escaped, and how he got such a lot of cattle. He, therefore, said to him: — "Hallo, Francis, where did you get all the cattle from?"

Francis replied: — "Why, from the river into which you threw me. There are hundreds of thousands of them there. The only misfortune is that, being young, I could not manage more; so I contented myself with these. Oh, if I were as big and strong as you are, what a lot more I could have got."

The poor uncle for the third time believed what Francis told him, and so he asked him to bind his hands and feet and to throw him in the river. Francis, too glad of the opportunity offered him to get rid of his uncle, at once set to work. Having bound him well and put him in a sack, he carried him away. On the way, Francis now and then dropped his load on the ground, upon which his uncle would say: — "Oh, Francis, what are you trying to do? You will kill me at this rate."

But Francis would reply: — "No, no, uncle; you see I am so small, and you are so heavy! How can I help it?"

Thus Francis carried his uncle up the mountain and threw him into the river, where he immediately died. When Francis returned home, his aunt came and inquired of him what his uncle was doing. Francis replied: — "Uncle is selecting good cattle, and will not come home for a long time."

For a whole week his aunt came daily and asked Francis why her husband had not returned yet, and Francis always gave her the same reply; but at last he said to her: — "*Támchā naurā atham ēvāchā nāhin. Tāmī vālē anī pōt kārā, anī bāngriā biṅgriā phōrā.* Your husband will never come now. Remove your *vālē* and *pōt*, and break your bangles."²

Francis now had abundance of money, with which he purchased a large house, and plenty of landed property, and lived with his old mother happily and in undisturbed enjoyment of his wealth.

² *Vālē* are anklets and *pōt* is a necklet of gold which is given by the husband to the wife on their wedding day. The breaking of bangles is pre-eminently the sign of widowhood, as also are the removal of the *vālē* and *pōt*, which are called the *shingār* of a married woman.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

OFFERINGS TO GODLINGS IN BENGAL.

At Rāniganj and Bardwān in Bengal I found small rude images of horses and elephants, used as offerings to Sattā Pīr by Musalmāns and to Bhoirob (Bhairava) and Manṣā Dēvi by Hindus.

Images of horses are offered in a similar way

to Pīrs at Siālkōṭ in the Pañjāb in token of vows fulfilled. It would be interesting to note how far the custom is spread in India among the more civilized peoples. Among the savage Chérōs of the Mirzāpur District such images of horses are common.

R. C. TEMPLE.

BOOK-NOTICE.

THE VEDĀNTA-SIDDHĀNTAMUKTĀVALI OF PRAKĀSĀNANDA, with English translation and notes, by ARTHUR VENIS. Benares, 1890. Pp. vi, ii, 186, vi. (Reprint from the *Pandit*.)

According to the editor, Prakāśānanda, the author of this work "is wedged in between Nṛsiṃha-Āśrama and Appaya-Dīkshita," the former of whom converted the latter "from Śāiva heresy to the true Śāṃkara Vēdānta," and the latter "had reached a good old age in 1620 A. D." More precise information regarding this author is not available. Consequently his work has probably to be assigned to the last quarter of the 16th century. Prakāśānanda's Siddhāntamuktāvali belongs to a class of works which serve as appendages to the second Adhyāya of Śāṃkara's great *Bhāṣya*. The object of these works "consists in searching through all the so-called proofs of duality (*dvaita*) current in the schools (more particularly in that of the Nyāya), in order to expose them as just so many cases of "petitio principii (*ātmdśraya*)." The conclusion at which the author arrives at the end of his inquiry is expressed in the following words of the *Smṛiti* :—

ब्रह्मात्मैकत्वविज्ञानं शास्त्रं देशिकपूर्वकम् ।

बुद्धिपूर्वकतं पापं कृत्स्नं दहति बह्विवत् ॥

"The knowledge of self and Brahman as identical, gained through the Vēda and attendance on a Guru, consumes like fire every evil deed (though done intentionally.)"

Professor Venis has done invaluable service to the student of the Vēdānta Philosophy by adding an English paraphrase of the whole work, in which the perplexing terms of the Śāstra are rendered by corresponding ones chosen from European philosophy. The technicalities of the Tarkasāstra make it a somewhat repulsive subject to those who have followed the close reasoning of the European school. But editions, like the present one, of Hindu philosophical works, published by scholars like Mr. Venis, who can sympathise with the spirit of Hindu metaphysics, go a great deal towards removing such repulsiveness. In the index, which is appended to this

edition, is given a clear explanation of some of the most difficult terms of Hindu Logic.

Under the superintendence of Professor Venis is published the Vizianagram Sanskrit Series, the first number of which is edited by Mahāmahāpādhyāya Gaṅgādhara Śāstrī Mānavallī and gives a fair indication of the scholar-like way in which the others will be done. It contains the Sanskrit text of the *Siddhāntalēśa*, a work on the Vēdānta Philosophy written by Appaya-Dīkshita. The editor discusses, in the preface, at considerable length, the date of the author, and arrives at the conclusion that he was born about 1550 A. D. He further adds that Appaya-Dīkshita was, according to European scholars, the chief Paṇḍit at the court of the Vijayanagara king Kṛṣṇarāja whose other name was Venkatapati and who was the son of Naraṣimha *alias* Naraśadēva. It is clear from the following verse which is found at the end of the *Kuvalayananda*, another work of the same author, that he was a contemporary of king Venkatapati :—

अमुं कवलयानन्दमकरोद्वपरीक्षितः ।

नियोगाद्देवदूतपतेनिरुपाधिकृपानिधेः ॥

From inscriptions and other trustworthy sources we learn that Kṛṣṇarāja, the son of Naraśa or Nṛsiṃha, was not called Venkatapati, and that he reigned from about Śaka 1430 to 1451 (= A.D. 1508 to 1529).¹ If the date that is established in the preface of the book under review for the birth of Appaya-Dīkshita is correct, the sovereign of whose court he was the chief Paṇḍit, must have been Venkaṭa I. of Kaṇṇāṭa, whose grants range from Śaka 1508 to 1535 (= A.D. 1586 to 1613).² The editor, being a stranger to Drāviḍian names of places, makes Tiruvalakuḍu of Tiruvālaṅgāḍu ('the sacred banyan forest'), where some of the descendants of Appaya-Dīkshita are still supposed to live. Further, he attempts to Sanskritize such names as Tañjāvūr, Kumbhaḡhōṇam and Māyavaram from their Anglo-Indian forms. Strange irony of fact that these forms should gain permanence even in Sanskrit works in preference to the vernacular names !

V. V.

¹ *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I. p. 362.

² *ante*, Vol. XIII. p. 155.

A NOTE ON THE DATE OF THE BOWER MANUSCRIPT.

BY A. F. RUDOLF HOERNLE, PH. D.

[Reprinted with alterations and additions from the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*,
Vol. LX, Part I, No. 2, 1891.]

THE Bower manuscript was exhibited to the Asiatic Society of Bengal at the two meetings in November, 1890 and April, 1891. I call it the "Bower MS." in order that Lieutenant Bower, to whose enterprise the learned world owes the preservation of the manuscript, may receive the honour due to him. Some account of the locality and circumstances of its finding will be found in the Society's *Proceedings* for November, 1890; and a preliminary account of the manuscript and its contents was published by me in the *Proceedings* for April, 1891. Since then I have spent a long summer vacation in carefully examining the whole manuscript, and, with the exception of a few leaves, I have read and transcribed the whole. I have now, moreover, the pleasure of announcing that the Governments of India and Bengal, with their usual liberality in such matters, have decided to publish a complete edition of the manuscript which I am now preparing.

This paper had been written (in Darjiling, in May), when I received (in July), through the kindness of Professor Bühler in Vienna, an advance copy of his notice¹ of the specimen pages of the Bower MS., which were published in the November *Proceedings* of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. It was particularly gratifying to me to find that, reading the manuscript, he in Vienna and I in Calcutta, at about the same point of time, we independently arrived at essentially the same conclusions, both with regard to the age and the contents of the manuscript. Such a coincidence most distinctly makes for the truth of our conclusions.

The substance of the paper which I now publish on the age of the Bower MS., and which I promised in the April *Proceedings*, was originally intended by me to form a part of the introduction to my edition of the manuscript. But seeing the interest which the manuscript has already excited in Europe, I publish it now in anticipation, and hope similarly to publish portions of the manuscript, with translations, from time to time.²

I may state here briefly the results of my detailed examination of the manuscript. It consists of not less than five distinct portions.

The first portion consists of 31 leaves. It contains the medical work of which I have published the commencement in the April *Proceedings*, and two pages of which are figured in the upper parts of the two plates accompanying the November and April *Proceedings*. I shall designate it by the letter A.

The second portion, to be called B, which immediately follows the first portion, consists of five leaves, and forms a sort of collection of proverbial sayings. A specimen of it is figured in the lower part (No. II) of the plate in the April *Proceedings*.

The third portion, C, consisting of four leaves, contains the story of how a charm against snake-bite was given by Buddha to Ānanda while he was staying in Jētavana, the garden of Anāthapiṇḍa. A specimen of this portion is figured in the lower part of the plate in the November *Proceedings*.

The fourth portion, D, consists of six leaves. It is preserved in a rather unsatisfactory condition, and appears to contain a similar collection of proverbial sayings as the second portion, B.




The fifth portion, E, which also consists of five leaves, contains another medical treatise. It appears to be — so far as I can judge at present — the commencement of a larger work.



¹ It is now published in the *Vienna Oriental Journal*, Vol. V, p. 103.

² The first instalment is published in No. III. of the *Journal, As. Soc. Beng.*, for 1891. It is the fifth portion (E) of the MS.

Besides these five connected portions, there appear to be a few detached leaves, quite unconnected with one another and with those larger portions.



Of the fourth and fifth portions no specimens have been published, but the fifth is written in the same style as the first portion. The fourth portion is written in an exceedingly slovenly and hurried hand, much resembling that of the third portion, but the writing is far more slovenly. It may possibly represent the handwriting of a fourth scribe; though, on the whole, I am disposed to believe that there are really only three distinct styles of writing represented in the entire manuscript. The first is that of the first and fifth portions (A and E); they are so nearly alike, that I believe them to be of the same scribe. The second is that of the second portion (B), which is a fine, ornamental writing. It must be ascribed to a distinct scribe. The third is that of the third and fourth portions (C and D), which seem to me to differ more in the manner than in the character of writing, and may not improbably be due to one scribe, though a different person from the scribes of A, E and B.

I come now to the question of the age of the MS. Here the first points to be settled are the locality and class, to which the characters of the MS. belong. Mr. Fleet has clearly shown, in his Volume III. of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum* on the Gupta Inscriptions,³ that, irrespective of varieties, there existed, at the time of the Gupta period, two very distinct classes of the ancient Nāgarī alphabet, the North-Indian and the South-Indian (see Fleet, pp. 3, 4). The test letter for these two great classes is the character for *m*, which in the Southern alphabets retains its old form  resembling the figure 8, while in the Northern alphabets that old form has been displaced by a square cursive form . Tried by this test, it is at once seen that the alphabet of our MS. belongs to the Northern class. Throughout the MS. the square form  is used exclusively. It is particularly distinct in the portions C and D; in A, B and E the left-hand curved line is drawn somewhat straighter.

The Northern class of alphabets, however, is again divided into two great sections, which, though their areas overlap to a certain extent, may be broadly, and for practical purposes sufficiently, distinguished as the Eastern and Western sections. The test letter in this case is the cerebral sibilant *sha*. In the North-Eastern alphabet its form is , while in the North-Western alphabet its form is .⁴ Examples of the former alphabet we have in the posthumous Allahabad pillar inscription of Samudra Gupta, of about 400 A. D. (Fleet, pp. 1, 6), the Kaṇḍān pillar inscription of Skanda Gupta, of 460 A. D. (Fleet, p. 65), and others in Mr. Fleet's volume.⁵ The same alphabet is shown to perfection in the Nepalese inscriptions, Bhagwanlāl Indrajī's Nos. 1 to 10 and No. 12, published *ante*, Vol. IX., p. 163; also in the Nepalese inscriptions Nos. 1 and 2, in Mr. Bendall's *Journey in Nepal*, pp. 72, 74. To this section also belongs a new copperplate of Dharmāditya (Samudra Gupta?), lately found in the Faridpur district in Eastern Bengal. On the other hand, the other-Nepalese inscriptions, *ante*, Vol. IX., Nos. 11, 13, 14, 15, and in Mr. Bendall's *Journey*, Nos. 3 to 6, exhibit the North-Western alphabet. The latter alphabet is also to be seen in all the Nepalese MSS., described in Mr. Bendall's *Catalogue of Buddhist Sanskrit MSS.*, including the two oldest, Nos. 1049 and 1702.

Examples of the North-Western alphabet in Mr. Fleet's volume are the Bilsad pillar inscription of Kumāra Gupta I., of 415 A. D., the Indūr plate of Skanda Gupta, of 465 A. D., and others.⁶ Also the Tōramāṇa inscription in the *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I., p. 238, the

³ All subsequent references to "Fleet" refer to this work.

⁴ At the same time the Indian N.-E. alphabet has the form  for the dental *sa*, the two forms of *sha* and *sa* being but slightly distinct from one another. The Indian N.-W. alphabet has  for *sa*, which is also used by the Nepalese variety of the N.-E. alphabet.

⁵ The following Nos. in Mr. Fleet's volume belong to the N.-E. class: Nos. 1, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 22, 64, 65, 66, 68, 75; occasionally the Western form is used in conjuncts, such as *ksha*, *shta*.

⁶ The following Nos. belong to this class: Nos. 4, 10, 13, 16, 19, 20—31, 33—37, 42, 43, 46—52, 57—59, 63, 67, 70—72, 74, 76, 80. See also the classificatory lists at the end of this paper.

Kumāra Gupta II. seal in the *Journal, As. Soc. Beng.*, Vol. LVIII., p. 88, and the Nepalese inscriptions above mentioned.

In both the North-Eastern and North-Western sections there are divisions into varieties, some of which Mr. Fleet has noticed. However, for my present purpose, there is no need to enter into any consideration of these. But the distinction of the two great sections is very marked, and can never be missed when once pointed out.

There is one point, worthy of notice, with regard to these two great Northern divisions. It is this, that in India proper the North-Eastern alphabet gradually came to be entirely displaced by the North-Western alphabet, in comparatively very early times. This displacement must have taken place about the beginning of the sixth century A. D. For about 525 A. D. we already find an inscription in Jaunpur (of Íśvara Varman, Fleet, p. 228) which shows an exclusive North-Western character; and there is not a single inscription known (so far as I am aware) after 500 A. D., which shows the distinctive marks of the old North-Eastern alphabet. Outside of India proper, that is in Nêpāl, the North-Eastern alphabet maintained its ground for about three centuries longer; for the inscription, No. 4, *ante*, Vol. IX., dated in 854 A. D., still shows the use of that alphabet. This survival is accounted for by the fact that the North-Western alphabet apparently made its way into Nêpāl about a century and a half later than into Eastern India proper. For the earliest known inscription in that alphabet is No. 11, *ante*, Vol. IX., which must be dated 655 A. D. For the purposes of manuscript writing, as distinguished from documentary inscription, the North-Western alphabet probably made its way into Nêpāl very much earlier, as shown by Mr. Bendall's old MS. No. 1049, if (as I think it may well be) it is dated in 252 of the Gupta era, that is, in 571 A. D.


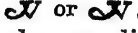
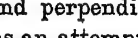



Now the Bower MS. is distinctly written throughout in the North-Western alphabet. This is an important point and must be kept in view throughout the following enquiry. The age of our MS. must be judged solely by the facts as disclosed by the circumstances of the North-Western alphabet. No conclusion that can be drawn from circumstances connected with the South-Indian or the North-Eastern alphabets may be applied to the determination of the age of our MS. For it stands to reason, that no scribe, who was habituated to write in the North-Western alphabet, would in any writing of his habitually introduce any peculiarity of the South-Indian or North-Eastern alphabets, with which he was not familiar.

Having premised this much, I proceed to the consideration of the points that appear to me to afford the means of determining approximately the date of the Bower MS.

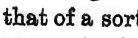
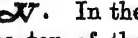

Among the existing varieties of the North-Western alphabet, there is one which has most nearly retained its ancient character. This is the so-called Śāradā alphabet, which is still current in Kāśmīr and the adjacent Sub-Himalayan provinces, such as the Chambā and Kāngrā valleys. The most striking point of difference between the Śāradā alphabet and its more ancient parent, the original North-Western alphabet, is the sign for the letter *ya*. The Śāradā alphabet uses the modern cursive form य, while the original North-Western alphabet employed the more ancient tridentate form य. This is the test letter by which any inscription or manuscript written in the Śāradā characters may be at once distinguished from any inscription or manuscript written in the more ancient North-Western alphabet. The latter I shall, for the sake of convenience, briefly distinguish as the Gupta alphabet. The oldest MS. in the Śāradā characters of the existence of which we know, is the so-called Horiuzi MS., of which Professor Bühler has published an account and illustrative plates, in Volume I. Part III. of the *Anekdota Ozoniensia*.⁷ According to him, "it is certain that this MS. cannot date later than the first half of the sixth century A. D." (*ibid.*, p. 64). It employs throughout the modern cursive form of *ya*. On the other hand, the Bower MS., though showing in the writing of parts A and E, in many

⁷ "Śāradā" is the name of a small group of alphabets, the varieties of which differ a little according to locality (Kāśmīr, Chambā, etc.), or period or maternal of writing, etc.; but the essential unity of the group is well known, and it is usual to call it Śāradā.

respects, a very decided resemblance to the Sārada characters, employs in the portions B, C, D exclusively, in A, E almost exclusively, the older trident form of the letter *ya*. It follows, therefore, that the Bower MS. is not written in the Sārada alphabet, but in the more ancient Gupta alphabet. The general similarity of its letters to the Sārada probably shows that the locality of its writing was somewhere in the extreme North-West of India, but its use of the ancient trident form of *ya* shows that its date must be antecedent to the elaboration of the Sārada form of the North-Western alphabet. When this event took place, I shall now attempt to show.

The old form (though not quite the oldest, which was ) of the letter *ya* was  or . It was made by two separate movements of the hand, one for drawing the left-hand perpendicular, the other for drawing the remaining portion of the letter. The next step was an attempt to draw the letter with one movement of the hand. This led to the contrivance of the form  by which the end of the left-hand crook or loop was brought forward to the point of junction of the perpendicular and horizontal portions of the letter. It was now possible to draw the letter with one stroke of the pen, beginning with the top of the left-hand perpendicular, downwards; then round the loop, from left to right, to the bottom of the perpendicular; then finishing with the right-hand crook or angle. This change was clearly due to the convenience of cursive writing. But the tendency of cursive writing to quickness and economy of effort very soon led to a further change, which produced the form , by severing the point of junction. This form, which was the final result of the process, is still essentially the modern cursive form. The intermediate form , as I shall presently show, only existed for a comparatively very short time, and is essentially a mere transitional form.

It is a well-accepted fact that cursive forms first make their appearance in manuscript writing, and may be, and generally are, in use in MS. writing some time before they are introduced in the inscribing of documents on stone, copper or other material. Such documents are of a conservative nature; they have a tendency to preserve old forms, after these have long disappeared from ordinary MS. writing. The common or exclusive use, in an ordinary MS., of a distinctly archaic form is, therefore, a safe means of determining its age.

The old form of the letter *ya* was once current in all the alphabets of India. In all of them it gradually became displaced by some cursive form. But this displacement did not take place in all of them at the same point of time. In the South-Indian alphabet it survived, at least in inscriptions, down to the twelfth century A. D.⁸ The North-Eastern alphabet, as I have already remarked, was, in India proper, as early as the beginning of the sixth century, superseded by the North-Western alphabet; but in Nêpâl it survived about three centuries longer, and there, with it, the old form of *ya* survived, at least in inscriptions, down to the middle of the ninth century A. D. It should be noted, however, that the old form of *ya*, in the shape in which it survived in Nêpâl, is somewhat different from the old form in its original shape, as it was once current in the North-Indian alphabets. Its original shape is that of a sort of trident, of which the left-hand prong makes a curve or even a loop, thus  or . In the Nepalese shape, the curve or loop, is replaced by a ringlet which is poised on the top of the left-hand prong, thus .⁹ The difference is marked, and the two shapes can be easily distinguished from each other.

The North-Western alphabet was the first to discard the use of the old form of *ya*. From it, as I shall presently show, the old form disappeared, even in inscriptions, as early as the end of the sixth century A. D.; and from cursive writing in that alphabet, according to the well-known rule, above stated, it must have disappeared much earlier. There is an obvious conclu-

⁸ In the old Kanarese, where it much resembles the later Nepalese form with the ringlet attached to the left prong. See, e. g., the Eastern Chalukya inscription of 1184 A. D., *ante*, Vol. XIV., p. 50, or the Kâkatiya inscription of 1162 A. D., *ante*, Vol. XI., p. 9. It has now passed into the various modern cursive forms of the South-Indian alphabets.

⁹ See, e. g., the inscription No. 8, *ante*, Vol. IX., p. 171.

sion, which is suggested by these facts; it is, that the invention, so to speak, of the cursive form of *ya* took place in the North-West of India, somewhere within the area in which the North-Western alphabet was current,

The first document known to us, from which the use of the old form has entirely disappeared is the long Bôdhgayâ inscription of Mahânâman of 588 A. D. (Fleet, p. 274). It uses exclusively the transitional form, with one or two exceptions, in which the modern form itself is used.¹⁰ In another short Bôdhgayâ inscription of Mahânâman, of about the same date (Fleet, p. 278), the modern form is used exclusively. In fact, after 600 A. D., there is no inscription known, which shows any trace of the survival of the old form. In all of them the cursive form of *ya* is fully established in exclusive use; thus in the Madhâ (Lakkha Mandal) inscription of about 600 A. D. (*Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I, p. 10),¹¹ the Madhuban inscription of Harsha, of 631 A. D. (*ibid.* p. 67), the Apsaṣ and Shâhpur inscriptions of Âdityasêna, of about 672 A. D. (Fleet, pp. 200, 208), the Dêṣ Baranârk inscription of Jivita Gupta, of about 725 A. D. (Fleet, p. 213), the Sârânth inscription of Prakatâditya of somewhere in the seventh century (Fleet, p. 284). To these may be added the evidence of those Nepalese inscriptions, which are not written in the North-Eastern or proper Nepalese alphabet, but in the North-Western characters; thus the Patan inscription of 687 A. D. (see Mr. Bendall's *Journey in Nepal*, p. 77), the Jaisi (Katmandu) inscription of 750 A. D. (*ibid.* p. 79), the inscription of Siva Dêva, of 748 A. D., another of 750 A. D., and the inscription of Jayadêva, of 758 A. D. (see *ante*, Vol. IX, pp. 176-78). In all these inscriptions the modern cursive form is used exclusively.

Another piece of evidence, in the same direction, is the Tibetan tradition respecting the introduction of the Northern Indian alphabet into Tibet (see *Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LVII, pp. 41 ff.). It is said that these characters were introduced into Tibet by the sage Sambhōta, who brought them from Magadha, where he had resided from A. D. 630-650. These characters are known in Tibet as the "Wartu" characters of Magadha; their forms, as traditionally preserved in Tibet, may be seen in Plate I of the *Journal (ibidem)*; and it will be seen that among these the letter *ya* has the cursive form. This shows that at the time of Sambhōta's visit to Magadha, in the second quarter of the seventh century A. D., the cursive form of *ya* was in current use in North-India.¹²

I am not aware of the existence of a single dated inscription in North-India, written in the North-Western alphabet, which indubitably proves any use, still less the exclusive, or almost exclusive, use of the old form of *ya*, after 600 A. D. It follows from this evidence that, since the old form of *ya* had entirely disappeared from inscriptions, from the end of the sixth century (say from about 580 A. D.), it must have disappeared from the cursive writing of ordinary manuscripts long before. Accordingly a manuscript, like the Bower MS., in which the old form is still used almost exclusively, must be placed long before the end of the sixth century, and much nearer the beginning of it.

This conclusion is fully supported by the evidence of all the ancient dated (or practically dated) MSS. that are, as yet, known to exist. The oldest is the Horiuzi MS. The date of its writing has been shown by Professor Bühler to be somewhere in the middle of the sixth century, that is, between 520 and 577 A.D. (see *Anec. Oxon.*, p. 63 ff.). It exhibits throughout the exclusive use of the cursive form of *ya*, thus showing that this cursive form was fully

¹⁰ The transitional form is here used in a somewhat modified and more ornate shape.

¹¹ The transitional form occurs twice in this inscription, in *yêna*, ll. 6 and 11, curiously enough, with the vowel *ê*, on which see page 35.

¹² The "Wartu" characters exhibit in all test points the characteristics of the North-Western alphabet. This shows, what I have already observed (*ante*, p. 81), that the North-Eastern alphabet, which was once current in Magadha, was there in very early times displaced by the North-Western alphabet. It is said, however, that Sambhōta only "partly" adopted the "Wartu" characters for his Tibetan alphabet (*Journal, ibid.* p. 41). This explains the fact that the "Wartu" or cursive form of *ya* does not appear in that alphabet. For the letter *ya* that sage appears to have drawn on the North-Eastern alphabet, which he must have known from Nêpâl, where (as I have shown) it maintained its ground about three centuries longer than in Magadha.

established for MS. writing in the middle of the sixth century A. D. The next oldest MSS are two, described as Nos. 1049 and 1702 by Mr. Bendall in his *Catalogue of Buddhist MSS. in the Cambridge Library*, p. xxxix. One of them is dated Samvat 252, which Mr. Bendall takes to be in terms of the Harsha era and to be equal to 857 A. D. For my part, I can see no valid objection, on palæographic grounds, to understanding the date in terms of the Gupta era, and as equal to 571 A. D. I do not notice any such material difference between the writing of the Horinzi MS. and the two Cambridge MSS., as to account for a supposed interval of three centuries. Anyhow, both Cambridge MSS. exhibit the exclusive use of the cursive form of *ya*.

The conclusion appears to me inevitable, that any MS. which shows, as the Bower MS. does, the exclusive use of the old form, or which shows an uniform absence of the use of the cursive form, cannot be possibly placed later than 550 A. D., and in all probability is very much older. The only question is, whether there are any indications in the Bower MS. that render it possible to fix its date somewhat more definitely.

Here the following facts are to be observed. The first appearance of the modern cursive form of *ya* in any inscription is met with in the Bijayagaḍh inscription of Viṣṇu Vardhana, of 371 A. D. (Fleet, p. 252), in *śrēyō*, line 4 (if the plate can be trusted); and it is to be noted that it is used in junction with the vowel *ō*. The old form, however, is more usual, as in *nāmadhē-yēna*, l. 3, and *abhivṛiddhayē*, l. 4, in both cases with the vowel *ē*. The first appearance of the transitional cursive form is met with about thirty years later (see below), but there can be no doubt that, though in the existing inscriptions, the first appearance of the modern form happens to be earlier, that form, as compared with the transitional form of the letter, is of later development.¹³ Probably there was no great interval between the development of the two forms. In any case, the invention (so to speak) of the transitional form and, with it, the first beginnings of the modern form of *ya* may, thus far, be placed at about 350 A. D.

The actual first appearance of the transitional form is found in the Tusām inscription (Fleet, p. 269). It occurs in the word *yōgāchāryya*, l. 3, again with the vowel *ō*, and side by side with the old form in *upayōjyam*.¹⁴ This is a very clear instance; but, unfortunately, the inscription is not dated, though on palæographic grounds it may be referred to about 400 A. D. The first occurrence of the transitional form in a dated inscription is in the Indōr copper-plate of Skanda Gupta, of 465 A. D. (Fleet, p. 68), in the words *abhivṛiddhayē*, l. 4, and *upayōjyam*, l. 7, in both cases with the vowels *ē* and *ō*. Side by side, the old form occurs in *yōgam*, l. 9, *yō*, l. 11, *abhivṛiddhayē*, l. 8. Other instances occur in the Kāritālāi inscription of Jayanātha, of 493 A. D. (Fleet, p. 117), in *abhivṛiddhayē*, l. 7, and *chhrēyō*, l. 15, here also with the vowels *ē* and *ō*; and side by side with the old form in *yē*, l. 10, *lōpayēt*, l. 12, *prāyēna*, l. 16, *yō*, l. 20. Another instance occurs in the Khōh inscription of Jayanātha, of 496 A. D. (Fleet, p. 121), in the word *abhivṛiddhayē*, l. 8, again with the vowel *ē*, and side by side with the older form in *pratyāyōpanayam*, l. 11, and *prāyēna*, l. 17. A very clear instance occurs in the Jaunpur inscription of Īśvaravarman, of about 525 A. D. (Fleet, p. 228), in *anvarāyē*, l. 2, again with the vowel *ē*. So again in the Mandasōr inscription of Yaśōdharman of about 530 A. D. (Fleet, p. 149), in *yō*, l. 4, again with the vowel *ō*, and side by side with the old form in *pādayōr*, l. 5. Similarly in the Mandasōr inscription of Yaśōdharman as Viṣṇuvardhana, of 533 A. D. (Fleet, p. 150), in *yēna*, l. 8, again with the vowel *ē*, and side by side with the old form in *bhūrayō*, l. 8,¹⁵ *yēna*, l. 8, 13, *yo*, l. 17, 18. Likewise in the Khōh inscription of Sarvanātha, of 533 A. D. (Fleet, p. 135), in *nyāyēna*, l. 13, l. *yē*, 16, and *pra-*

¹³ A similar case, with regard to the development of the letter *m*, is noted by Mr. Fleet in his volume on the Gupta inscriptions, p. 3, footnote.

¹⁴ This instance was also noticed by Mr. Fleet (p. 270, footnote 4). It is the identical form that occurs in the Bower MS.

¹⁵ This is a very good instance for comparison, because in *bhūrayō yēna* the two forms stand in immediate juxtaposition.

tyāyōtpannaka, l. 9, again with the vowels *ē* and *ō*, and side by side with the old form in *līpayēti*, l. 18, *grāmayōr*, l. 27, *yō*, l. 25, *yē*, l. 27, etc. These are all the instances of the occurrence of the transitional form that I have been able to discover among the 35 inscriptions in the North-Western (Gupta) alphabet, published by Mr. Fleet.

Contemporary with them are the following instances of the use of the modern cursive form. In the Majhgawām inscription of Hastin, of 510 A.D. (Fleet, p. 106), it occurs in the words *chhrēyō*, l. 14, *yō*, l. 16, *pānīyēshu*, l. 17, *yē*, l. 18, again with the vowels, *ē* and *ō*, and side by side with the old form in the words *anvayōpabhōgyas*, l. 10, *yō*, l. 11, *ahayō*, l. 18.¹⁶ The transitional form also occurs in the word *abhivṛiddhayē*, l. 7.

Now as to the conclusions that follow from the above statistics, note, in the first place, the extreme rarity of the transitional and modern cursive forms, as well as the peculiar circumstances under which alone they occur. And here mark the following four points:—

(1) They occur only in a small proportion of inscriptions. Of course, the only inscriptions with which we are here concerned are those that use more or less exclusively the old form. Those that already use the transitional or modern cursive forms exclusively are outside the question; so are, of course, all those that are not written in some variety or other of the North-Western alphabet. Now there are 35 inscriptions of the former description in Mr. Fleet's Volume III. of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*. To these may be added a few others, such as the Tōramāṇa inscription in the *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I, p. 238, and the Kumāra Gupta seal in the *Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LVIII, p. 88. Among these there are only ten inscriptions, a little more than one-fourth, that exhibit the occasional use of the transitional and modern cursive forms at all. The rest use exclusively the old form.

(2) The transitional and modern cursive forms occur, in that one-fourth of inscriptions, exclusively in connection with the vowels *ē* or *ō*.¹⁷ With all other vowels, *i. e.*, in every other case, the old form is used.

(3) Even in connection with the vowels *ē* and *ō*, the transitional and modern cursive forms are not obligatory, but optional. In fact, even with those vowels, the old form is used more commonly than the transitional and modern cursive forms. On the whole the former is used twice as often as the latter.

(4) Of the two cursive forms, the transitional and the modern, the former is used much more frequently than the latter (*viz.*, transitional : modern = 13 : 4).

In the second place, note that the period during which the sporadic use of the transitional and modern cursive forms occurs, is a comparatively well defined one. Its termini, so far as the evidence of the available inscriptions goes, are from 371 A. D. to 533 A. D., or in round numbers from 370 to 540 A. D., *i. e.*, 170 years. Or, if we omit the very early case of the Bijayagaḍh inscription, of 371 A. D., as perhaps of a doubtful character, the transition period extends from about 400 to 540 A. D., that is, 140 years. Antecedent to this period, we find the old form of *ya* in undisputed possession of the field, and subsequent to it, the cursive form of *ya* is in equally undisputed possession.¹⁸

Now it appears to me that from these facts there is but one conclusion, to which one is irresistibly driven. It is this, that there is here disclosed to us evidence of the actual point in time, when the invention, so to speak, of the cursive form of *ya* was made, or, to speak more precisely, the application of it to the non-conjunct *ya*. For to suit the case of the conjunct or under-written *ya*, the cursive form had been long before invented and exclusively employed. But to the non-conjunct *ya*, it only began to be applied about 400 A. D. At first it was only

¹⁶ In these cases the peculiarity of the form is also noted by Mr. Fleet, p. 106.

¹⁷ Probably it would also be used with the vowels *ai* and *au*; though no instance happens to occur in the existing inscriptions.

¹⁸ The single exception is the Aśtgaḍh seal, of about 565 A. D.; and here there are probably peculiar reasons to account for it.

applied tentatively and hesitatingly in those cases in which the non-conjunct *ya* carried the vowels *é* or *ô* (or *ai* or *au*). But the convenience of the cursive form gradually carried everything before it, and displaced the old form entirely about 540 A. D. In all probability this process commenced, in the case of manuscript writing, earlier than in that of documentary inscription, perhaps already about 350 A. D., and terminated proportionately earlier, perhaps about 500 A. D. On the other hand, in documentary inscription the process began later and ended later. Here the use of the old form may have lingered on to about 600 A. D.; but from that date, as already shown from the evidence of existing dated inscriptions, the use of the cursive form of *ya* enjoyed an undisputed possession of the field.

Accordingly, for practical purposes, the rule may be laid down, that any inscription in the North-Western Indian Alphabet which shows the more or less exclusive use of the old form of *ya* must date from before 600 A. D.

With regard to manuscripts the same rule must hold good, with this modification, that the termini must be put back by about 50 (or it may be 100) years; that is, a MS. showing the exclusive use of the cursive form of *ya* must date from after 550 or 500 A. D., while a MS. showing the more or less exclusive use of the old form of *ya* must date from before 550 or 500 A. D., and may date back as far as 350 A. D.

That this rule, as deduced from the above collected facts, is correct is proved by the Horiuzi MS. This MS. uses the cursive form of *ya* exclusively, and, as shown by Professor Bühler, it certainly dates from some time between 520 and 577 A. D.

This rule further proves that the elaboration of the so-called Śāradā alphabet may be placed about 500 A. D. For it possesses the cursive form of *ya*. Hence it follows that any manuscript and a fortiori any inscription, written in the Śāradā characters must certainly be later than 500 A. D.; though as the Śāradā characters, with slight modifications, are used up to the present day in Kāśmīr and the adjacent regions, a mere consideration of the form of the cursive *ya* is insufficient to fix with any approximation the date of such a manuscript or inscription in any particular year after that epoch.

Now let us see the bearing of the results of the above enquiry on the question of the age of the Bower MS. It is to be noticed that,

(1) The old form of *ya* is used almost exclusively throughout the MS. Indeed, in the second, third and fourth portions it is used exclusively, and it is only in the first and fifth portions, that the cursive (transitional or modern) form occasionally occurs.

(2) This cursive (transitional or modern) form is never used, except when carrying the vowels *é* or *ai* or *ô* or *au*.

(3) Even with those vowels, the use of the cursive (transitional or modern) form is optional; though on the whole, it is more usual than that of the old form.

(4) Of the two forms of the cursive *ya*, the transitional and the modern, the former is used almost exclusively; the modern cursive form occurring only in a few isolated cases.

The following examples are all taken from the two published plates: and I have only to remark, that the pages, figured on the two plates, are very fair specimens of the whole manuscript.

The transitional cursive form is to be seen on Plate I, No. I,¹⁹ in *yôga* 1. 1, *yôga* 1. 2 twice *yôgānam* 1. 3, *trayôdaśam* 1. 5, *kalpayēt* 1. 9.; again on Plate III, upper page, in *jīvanīyô* 1. 2, *payô* 1. 4, *jīvanīyais=cha* 1. 4, *lēpayēt* 1. 4, *vimīśrayēt* 1. 6, *prayôjayēt* 1. 6, *avagāhayēt* 1. 6, *yô...* 1. 6, *lēhayēt* 1. 8, *prayôjayēt* 1. 11. Note that it is always used with the vowels *é* or *ai* or *ô*.

¹⁹ Plate I is in the April Proceedings 1891, and Plate III in the November Proceedings, 1890.

There is only one instance of the modern cursive form; it occurs in the akshara *yēt* of *prayōjayēt* in Plate III, upper page, in line 11. Here we have the transitional and the modern cursive forms side by side in one word, the former form being used in the akshara *yō*, the latter in the akshara *yēt*. A similar instructive example of the use, side by side, of the old and the transitional forms, we have *ibidem* in *prayōjayēt*, in line 6, where the old form is seen in the akshara *yēt*, while the transitional form occurs in the akshara *yō*.

Of the old form there are the following instances. On Plate I, No I, we have it in *chārṇṇayēt* l. 10, and on Plate III, upper page, in *upakalpayēt* l. 2, * * *yēt* l. 3, *prayōjayēt* l. 6, *lēhayēt* l. 8, *pāyayēt* l. 9. Note here again, that all these instances are with the vowel *ē*. Of the old form with the vowel *ō* there is no instance in the figured pages; but I have noticed a few cases in other parts of the manuscript. Of course, I exclude here, as being beside the precise point in question, all instances of the use of the old form in combination with any other vowel, only remarking, that it is used uniformly with all other vowels.

To sum up, the examination of the two specimen pages shows: *ad* Nos. 1 and 2, that the old form is used exclusively, except with the vowels *ē*, *ai*, *ō* and *au*²⁰; *ad* No. 3, that out of 23 instances, in which the letter *y* is combined with the vowels *ē* or *ai* or *ō*, the cursive (transitional and modern) form is used in 17, while the old form is used in 6; that is, the former is used about three times as often as the latter; *ad* No. 4, that out of 17 instances of the use of the transitional and modern cursive forms, the former is used 16 times, while the latter occurs only once; *i. e.*, that the transitional form is used almost exclusively.

Now comparing the case of the Bower MS. with that of the Gupta inscriptions, the result is this, that the two cases, while fully agreeing in the main points, differ only in one particular, namely, that the cursive (transitional or modern) form is used in the manuscript rather more frequently than the old form (*vis.*, cursive: old = 3: 1), while in the inscriptions the old form is used rather more frequently than the cursive form (*vis.*, cursive: old = 1: 2). This, however, is nothing more than may be expected, if we consider that on the one side we have a case of ordinary manuscript writing, on the other one of documentary inscription, and remember that (as Professor Bühler says, in *Epigraphia Indica*, p. 68) "everywhere in India the epigraphic alphabets are in many details retrograde and lag behind the literary ones."

One thing, however, is clearly brought out by the evidence above set out, that the writing of the Bower MS. must be placed within that period, which, as we have seen, is marked out by that evidence as the period of transition from the use of the old rigid form of *ya* to the use of the (still existing) cursive form; that is, for manuscript writing, within the period from about 350 to 500 A. D.

It is true that in the second, third and fourth portions of the Bower MS., the old form is used exclusively. There is no trace whatsoever of either the transitional or the modern cursive forms. Judging by this circumstance only, we should have to place the MS. still earlier, somewhere before the fifth century A. D. But this would certainly seem to be wrong with regard to the second portion. For the fact, that this portion was written after the first, seems to be clearly proved by the circumstance that it commences on the reverse of a leaf, on the obverse of which we have the ending of the first portion. Properly considered, however, that circumstance only tends to confirm the conclusion that the main portion (A, B, E) of the Bower MS. was written during the transitional period. For it is only natural to suppose that during that period, some scribes had already more or less adopted the new fashion of cursive writing, while others, more conversative, adhered to the older fashion. On the whole, therefore, considering that the portions A and E of the MS. appear to manifest a decided tendency to a free use of the transitional form, it will probably be safer to place the date of the main portion of the MS. nearer to the end than the beginning of the transition period, that

²⁰ Of *au* there is no instance in the figured pages, but I have met with a few in other pages of the manuscript.

is to say, in the middle of the fifth century (say, about 450 A. D.). The portions C and D, however, may be referred to an earlier part of that period (say 400 A. D.).

This result will probably be startling to most of my readers. There exists — and I admit, hitherto not without reason — a general disposition to discredit any claim to great age on the part of any Indian manuscript. I used to incline to the same opinion, and the present result was an unexpected one to myself. But I do not see how the force of the evidence can be gainsaid.

Let us see what the objections are. In the first place it is said, that the material of the MS. — birch bark — is of a nature too weak and flimsy to permit us to believe that it could endure for such a length of time. This argument has been already well answered by Mr. Bendall in his *Catalogue of Buddhists Sanskrit MSS.*, p. XVII. ff., and by Professor Bühler in the *Anecdota Oxoniensia*, Vol. I, part III, p. 63ff. No *à priori* rule will apply; all depends on the circumstances under which a MS. may have been preserved; and the argument, from the nature of the material, will not stand for one moment against positive arguments from epigraphic history. According to Lieut. Bower's account, the MS. "had been dug out of the foot of one of the curious old erections just outside a subterranean city near Kuchar." These erections are described as being generally about 50 or 60 feet high, in shape like a huge cottage loaf; built solid of sun-dried bricks with layers of beams now crumbling away." I suppose it cannot be doubted that these erections are Buddhist *stūpas*. Such *stūpas* often contain a chamber enclosing relics and other objects; these chambers are generally near the level of the ground or "at the foot" (as it is said) of the erection, and they are often dug into by persons who search for hidden treasures. In this way the MS. was probably dug out, perhaps not long before it was made over to Lieut. Bower. In such a practically air-tight chamber there is no reason why a birch bark MS. should not endure for any length of time.

Another objection is that the characters used in a MS. are no guide to its age. It is said that "characters of the Gupta type have been used in very late times, and indeed are in use to the present day all along the region from which the Bower MS. comes." The characters which are here meant are those used in the Kāśmīr, Chambā and Kāngrā valleys. They are those which are commonly known by the name "Śāradā characters." These, as already remarked, are a variety of the North-Western alphabet, and are that variety which has, more than any other, preserved the shapes of its ancient parent, the North-Western Gupta alphabet. Now it is not quite correct to say, that the Śāradā alphabet has not changed; it is quite possible to distinguish the modern form of the Śāradā from its more ancient form. But what is really important is this, that the Śāradā alphabet, so far as we have any dated evidence, never possessed, at any period of its existence, the old (Gupta) form of the consonant *ya*. It always possessed exclusively the modern cursive form of that letter. I maintain, that there exists not a single dated MS. or inscription, written in any variety of the Śāradā alphabet, which does not show the exclusive use of the cursive form. This being so, it follows that any conclusions, drawn from facts connected with the Śāradā alphabet, have no application to a MS. which shows the almost exclusive use of the old (Gupta) form of *ya*, and which, therefore, is not written in the Śāradā characters. Now, what conclusions can be drawn from the facts connected with the Śāradā alphabet? Its exclusive use of the cursive *ya* shows that its elaboration is to be dated on this side of 500 A. D. But as it has but little changed the shape of its letters since the date of its inception, it follows, that any undated MS. or inscription written in the Śāradā alphabet must be placed after 500 A. D., but may be placed almost at any time after that epoch. That is really all that can be intended by the principle that the Śāradā characters are no guide as to age. More the principle will not bear, and it clearly is not applicable to a MS. which is not written in the Śāradā characters, but in a form of alphabet more archaic and very possibly the parent of the Śāradā. With the proviso, now explained, I fully agree with Professor Kielhorn's remark, made with reference to a Chambā Grant (*ante*, Vol. XVII., p. 7) that "it would be impossible to determine the age, even approximately, from its characters,"

these characters being, as Professor Kielhorn explains, the well-known Śāradā. Judging from these characters, all that one could say would be that the grant may date from any time after 500 A. D., which, of course, would be a futile proposition.

The main argument for the age of the Bower MS. is the preservation in it of the old form of *ya*. No objection can be raised on the ground that the old form was preserved much longer in the South-Indian and the North-Eastern Indian (Nepalese) alphabets. As these alphabets differ from the North-Western Indian, which is used in our MS., any conclusions, drawn from the circumstances of those alphabets, have no applicability to our MS. It stands to reason that no scribe, used to his own North-Western Indian alphabet, would, in writing a MS., think of introducing the old form of a letter, which did not exist any more in his own alphabet, from another alphabet, unfamiliar to him, in which it did still exist.

POSTSCRIPT.

Since writing most of the above remarks I have, as already stated, read and transcribed nearly the whole of the manuscript. I have carefully noted every occurrence of the akshara *yē*, *yō*, *yai*, and *yau*.

In the portions B, C, D, I have found the cursive form (either transitional or modern) used not once. The aksharas *yai* and *yau* never occur; the akshara *yē* occurs 19 times (B 4, C 13, D 2), always with the old form of *ya*. The akshara *yō* occurs 9 times (B 7, D 2), again always with the old form.

In the portions A and E, the case stands thus: there are altogether 333 cases of the occurrence of those aksharas, *vis.*, 202 of *yē*, 125 of *yō*, 4 of *yai* and 2 of *yau*. In every case of *yai* and *yau* the transitional form \mathcal{N} is used. With *yē* and *yō* the transitional form is used 227 times, and the modern form \mathcal{M} , 16 times. The transitional form occurs 117 times with *yē*, 110 times with *yō*, 4 times with *yai*, and twice with *yau*. The modern form occurs 12 times with *yē*, and 4 times with *yō*. Altogether the cursive form occurs 249 times. The old form occurs 73 times with *yē* and 11 times with *yō*. The following table exhibits this:—

Aksharas:					Totals.
Old	<i>yē</i> 73	<i>yō</i> 11	<i>yai</i> 0	<i>yau</i> 0	84
Transitional	„ 117	„ 110	„ 4	„ 2	233
Modern	„ 12	„ 4	„ 0	„ 0	16
					249
Total ...	<i>yē</i> 202	<i>yō</i> 125	<i>yai</i> 4	<i>yau</i> 2	333

Now with regard to point No. 3 (see p. 35), there being 249 cursive forms to 84 old ones among a total of 333 cases, the proportion of cursive to old forms is as 3 to 1. With regard to the point No. 4, there being 233 transitional to 16 modern forms among a total of 249 cases, the proportion of transitional to modern forms is as (about) 15 to 1. In both cases, it will be seen, the evidence of the entire manuscript most accurately bears out the evidence of the specimen pages (see p. 37) and thus confirms my conclusions based on the latter. I may add with regard to the points Nos. 1 and 2, that in the portions A and E, the cursive (transitional or modern) form never occurs in any other akshara but those four: *yē*, *yō*, *yai*, *yau*. With the aksharas *ya*, *yā*, *yi*, *yī*, *yu*, *yū*, in every case, without any exception, the old form \mathcal{N} , is used. The occurrence of these six aksharas, especially of *ya* and *yā* is very frequent, and this fact all the more accentuates the striking circumstance that the cursive form is only employed with the vowels *ē*, *ō*, *ai*, and *au*. There must have been some reason for this peculiarity, — perhaps one of mere convenience of writing, though I cannot suggest any satisfactory one. I should note, that the vowels *ē*, *ō*, *ai*, and *au* are drawn, both with the old and the cursive forms, in every possible variety: entirely side-marked, marked half on side and half on top, and entirely top-

marked. The cause of the peculiarity, therefore, cannot well have had any connection with the form of the vowels.

I would suggest that similar statistical enquiries should be made with reference to some other leading letters; e. g., *m*, *śh*, the sub-scribed *y*, the super-scribed *r*; also with regard to the numeral symbols. I have little doubt but that from such statistics may result some further useful land-marks for the determination of dates of writing. I hope to pursue the enquiry myself, so far as leisure from official duties will permit me.

ADDENDUM.

Since the publication of the foregoing paper in the *Journal* of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, I have drawn up a sketch map of the distribution, and classificatory lists, of the inscriptions on which my conclusions are based. As they may be found useful, I add them here.

I classify (following herein Mr. Fleet) the early Indian alphabets into the South-Indian and the North-Indian, distinguished by their forms of the letter *m*. Inscriptions which show the form *ṃ* are South-Indian; those which have *𑀢* are North-Indian.

The North-Indian alphabet I divide into the North-Eastern and North-Western varieties distinguished by their forms of the letter *śh* (cerebral sibilant). Inscriptions which show the form (bi-partite square) *𑀓* are North-Western, while those which have the form (looped square) *𑀔* are North-Eastern.

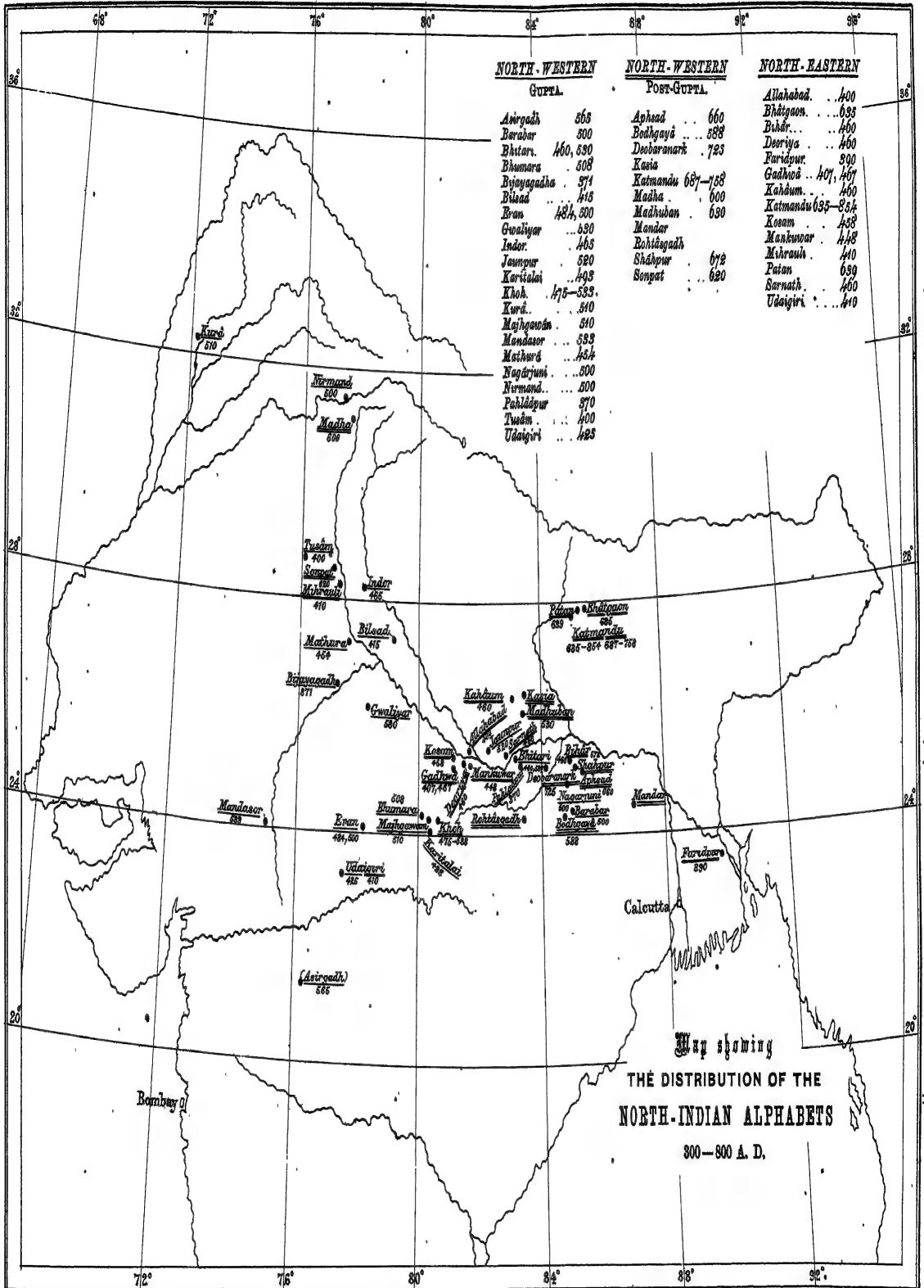
In the North-Western alphabet I distinguish the earlier Gupta and the later Post-Gupta varieties, which are distinguished by their forms of the letter *y*. Inscriptions which show the form *𑀕* are written in the Gupta, those which have *𑀖* are written in the Post-Gupta alphabet.

In India proper the North-Western alphabet displaced the North-Eastern about the end of the fifth century. The year 500 A.D. may be taken as a convenient epoch of this occurrence.

Not long afterwards the Post-Gupta began to displace the Gupta variety of the North-Western alphabet in India proper. The year 600 A.D. may be taken as a convenient epoch of the final displacement of the Gupta variety. Any inscription showing the old Gupta form of *y* may be placed before that date.

In the following lists the inscriptions are arranged in chronological order. Where the exact date is not known, an average date has been assigned, i. e., some year within the reign of the king named in the inscription. For these reigns I have used my synchronistic table, published in the *Journal, As. Soc., Bengal*, Vol. LVIII. The average dates may be easily recognised by their having no equivalents in the column of Indian dates. In a few cases, viz., Nos. 5, 16, 19, 20, 21 in List I, No. 11 in List II., and Nos. 11, 12 in List III., there is nothing, at present, available to fix their dates, except the test-letters themselves. These inscriptions, therefore, do not help to support my argument, and I have only included them in the lists for the sake of completeness, and moreover distinguished them by italic type. At the same time, seeing that the lists without them amply sustain my argument, they add some weight to the latter *post factum*.

With regard to Nos. 10, 11, 12 in List III. (marked by asterisks) I should explain, that in No. 10 (Kôsam inscription) no instance of the letter *śh* occurs. So far, therefore, the test fails. But it should be noted, that in the North-Eastern alphabet, the dental and the cerebral sibilants are formed very nearly alike, with a looped square; see, e. g., No. 13 (Kahânûm inscription). This looped or ringleted form of the dental *s* occurs frequently in the Kôsam inscription. Accordingly, I have classified it with the North-Eastern list. For the same reason, I have included in that list the two Nos. 11 and 12; for though these inscriptions exhibit one or two cases of the cerebral *śh*, these are, in the first place, not very distinct, and in the second place, they all occur in ligatures. The latter are not trustworthy tests, for the North-Eastern form of



sh is not always used in them. Thus in the thoroughly North-Eastern inscription of Kahāum (No. 13), we have the North-Western form of *sh* in the ligature *ksh* of *kshittipa* (line 3), while the North-Eastern form is used in the ligatures *rsh* and *shh* of *varshē* and *jyēshihā* respectively (line 4). I may add, that in the new Farīdpur inscription, in which both the dental and cerebral sibilants are of very frequent occurrence, they can only be distinguished with great difficulty.

Similar remarks apply to No. 4 of List I. No instance of the letter *sh* is preserved in it, but the characteristic form of the dental *s* helps to assign it to the North-Western variety.

In the first List I have indicated, by means of a cross (†), those inscriptions which shew instances of the transitional or modern cursive forms of *ya*; these are Nos. 3, 5, 10, 14, 15, 23, 28, 33, 34, 35.

LIST I. — *Inscriptions in the Gupta variety of the North-Western Alphabet.*

Serial No.	Publication.	Name of Inscription.	Name of King, etc.	Samv.	A.D.
1	Fleet's No. 58	Bijayagaḍh	Yaudhēyas	...	370
2	" No. 57	Pahlādpur	Śisūpāla	...	370
3	" No. 59	†Bijayagaḍh	Vishnu Vardhana	428	371
4	" No. 4	Mathurā	Chandra Gupta II (395-414)	...	400
5	" No. 67	†Tusdm	400
6	" No. 10	Bilsaḍ	Kumāra Gupta I	96	415
7	" No. 61	Udayagiri	(Kumāra Gupta I)	106	425
8	" No. 63	Mathurā	(Skanda Gupta)	135	454
9	" No. 13	Bhitari	Skanda Gupta (455-468)	...	460
10	" No. 16	†Indōr	Skanda Gupta	146	465
11	" No. 21	Khōh	Hastin	156	475
12	" No. 22	do.	do.	163	482
13	" No. 19	Ēran	Budhagupta	165	484
14	" No. 26	†Kāṣṭalāi	Jayanātha	174	493
15	" No. 27	†Khōh	do.	177	496
16	" No. 30	Nirmand	Samudra Sēna	...	500
17	" No. 36	Ēran	Tōramāna (494-510) ²¹	...	500
18	" No. 24	Bhumarā	Śarvanātha	189	508
19	" No. 48	Barabar	Ananta Varman	...	510
20	" No. 49	Nagārfunt	do.	...	510
21	" No. 50	do.	do.	...	510
22	" No. 20	Ēran	Gōparāja	191	510
23	" No. 23	†Majhgawām	Hastin	191	510
24	Epigr. Ind. I, p. 238	Kurā	Tōramāna	...	510
25	Fleet's No. 28	Khōh	Śarvanātha	193	512
26	" No. 30	do.	do.	197	516
27	" No. 29	do.	do.	...	516
28	" No. 51	†Jaunpur	Īśvara Varman (520-540)	...	525
29	" No. 25	Khōh	Samkshōbha	209	528
30	" No. 37	Gwālyār	Mihirakula (515-540)	...	530
31	Journ. A.S.B., LVIII, 88.	Bhitari (seal)	Kumāra Gupta II.	...	530
32	Fleet's No. 33	Mandasōr	Yaśōdharman	...	530
33	" No. 34	† do.	do.	...	530
34	" No. 31	†Khōh	Śarvanātha	214	533
35	" No. 35	† Mandasōr	Yaśōdharman	589	533
36	" No. 70	Mathurā	280	549
37	" No. 47	Asirgaḍh (seal)	Sarva Varman (565-570)	...	565

²¹ See *Journal, A. S. Beng.*, Vol. LVIII. p. 98.

None of the above inscriptions goes beyond the year 600 A. D.; hardly beyond the middle of the sixth century. The year 600 may, therefore, be taken as the extreme final limit of the use of the Gupta alphabet.

LIST II. — *Inscriptions in the Post-Gupta variety of the North-Western alphabet.*

Serial No.	Publication.	Name of Inscription.	Name of King, etc.	Sahr.	A.D.
1	Fleet's No. 71	Bôdhgayâ	Mahânâman	269	588
2	" No. 72	do.	do.	588
3	" No. 76	do.	do.	590
4	Epigr. Ind., I, p. 10	Madhâ	do.	600
5	Fleet's No. 52	Sônpat (seal)	Harsha Vardhana (606-648)	610
6	Epigr. Ind., I, p. 67	Madhuban	do.	25	681
7	Bhagwanlâl's No. 11	Katmandu	Jishnu Gupta	655
8	Fleet's No. 42	Aphsad.	Âdityasêna (640-675)	660
9	" No. 43	Shâhpur	do.	66	672
10	Bendall's No. 3	Patan	(Udayadêva)	82	687
11	Fleet's No. 79	Sârnatâ	Prakatâditya	690
12	" No. 46	Déobaranârk	Jivita Gupta II.	725
13	Bhagwanlâl's No. 13	Katmandu	Sivadêva II.	143	748
14	" No. 14	do.	(Jayadêva II.)	145	750
15	Bendall's No. 4	do.	do.	151	756
16	Bhagwanlâl's No. 15.....	do.	Jayadêva II.	153	758
...	Add.....	Horiuzi MS. ...	do.	530
...	Add.....	Cambridge MS., No. 1049.	do.	252	571

None of the above inscriptions goes back much beyond the year 600 A. D.; the earliest is of 588 A. D. The year 550, may, therefore, be taken as the extreme initial limit of the Post-Gupta alphabet. The latest inscription of the Gupta variety is of about 565 A.D. This shows that in the middle of the sixth century the Gupta and Post-Gupta alphabets were used simultaneously, the Post-Gupta coming into fashion, the Gupta going out of fashion. The process of displacement of the Gupta alphabet was going on through the sixth century. Although, therefore, an inscription, showing the Gupta variety, may not be placed after 600 A. D., one showing the Post-Gupta variety need not necessarily be placed after that date, but it may not be placed before 550 A. D.

To these remarks there is a double proviso. Firstly, they only apply to inscriptions; for manuscript writing the two limits should be placed probably about 100 years earlier. This is shown by the Horiuzi MS. which is written in a Post-Gupta variety and dates from about 530 A. D. Secondly, they only apply to India proper, not to Nêpâl.

With regard to India proper, the following list shows that the North-Eastern alphabet ceases to occur towards the end of the fifth century; the latest inscription is of 467 A. D. (No. 15). At the same time, List I. shows the occurrence of the North-Western alphabet within the North-Eastern area in the early part of the sixth century; the earliest is the Jaunpur inscription of about 525 A. D. (No. 28).²² The year 500 A. D., therefore, may be taken as the epoch of the displacement of the North-Eastern alphabet in India proper. It was the Gupta variety of the North-Western alphabet that displaced it. Soon afterwards, however, about the middle of the sixth century (cf. No. 28 of List I. with Nos. 1, 2, 3 of List II.) the Gupta variety itself was displaced by the Post-Gupta variety. This shows that there never was a Post-Gupta variety

²² The Bhitari inscription of about 460 A. D. (No. 9, List I.) would be a still earlier instance, but it is too badly preserved to be safely used.

of the North-Eastern alphabet; and as a matter of fact, no inscription has ever been discovered in India proper exhibiting both the North-Eastern form of *sh* श and the Post-Gupta form of *y* य.

LIST III. — *Inscriptions in the North-Eastern alphabet (only Gupta variety).*

Serial No.	Publication.	Name of Inscription.	Name of King, etc.	Sahr.	A.D.
1	Farīdpur	Dharmāditya	390
2	Fleet's No. 1	Allahabad	Chandra Gupta II (395-414)	400
3	" No. 7	Gaḍhwā	do.	88	407
4	" No. 6	Udayagiri	do.	410
5	" No. 32	Mihrauli	do.	410
6	" No. 9	Gaḍhwā	Kumāra Gupta I (414-454)	98	417
7	" No. 8	Gaḍhwā	do.	417
8	" No. 64	Gaḍhwā	do.	420
9	" No. 11	Mankuwār	do.	129	448
10	" No. 65	*Kōsam	Bhīma Varman	139	458
11	" No. 68	*Dēoriya	460
12	" No. 75	*Sārnaṭh	460
13	" No. 15	Kaḥāurn	Skanda Gupta (455—468)	141	460
14	" No. 12	Bihār	do.	460
15	" No. 66	Gaḍhwā	do.	148	467
16	Bendall's No. 1	Bhātgaon	Śivadēva I	316	685
17	Bhagwanlāl's No. 5	Katmandu	do.	635
18	Bendall's No. 2	Patan	Aṁsuvarman	34	639
19	Bhagwanlāl's No. 6 ...	Katmandu	do.	34	639
20	" No. 7 ...	do.	do.	39	644
21	" No. 8 ...	do.	do.	44	649
22	" No. 9 ...	do.	Jishṇu Gupta	48	653
23	" No. 10 ...	do.	do.	653
24	" No. 1 ...	do.	Mānadēva	386	705
25	" No. 12 ...	do.	Śivadēva II	119	725
26	" No. 2 ...	do.	Mānadēva	413	732
27	" No. 3 ...	do.	Vasantasēna	435	754
28	" No. 4 ...	do.	535	854

With regard to Nêpāl, List III. shows that the North-Eastern alphabet survived down to the middle of the ninth century; the latest inscription is dated 854 A. D. At the same time it also shows that the North-Western alphabet in the Post-Gupta variety was introduced in the middle of the seventh century. Its first appearance is in the Jishṇu Gupta inscription of about 655 A. D. (No. 7 in List II.). This is an instructive instance. Of Jishṇu Gupta we have three inscriptions, *viz.*, Bhagwanlāl's Nos. 9, 10 and 11. Of these Nos. 9 and 10 (see Nos. 22, 23 in List III.) are exclusively in the North-Eastern characters; moreover, No. 9 is dated in 653 A. D. This fixes very approximately the date of No. 11. But this No. 11, exhibits the curious fact of a mixture of North-Western Post-Gupta and North-Eastern forms. In line 2 (*kshôbhayitvā*) and l. 16 (*parshadi*) we have the North-Western form of *sh*; moreover, throughout the inscription we find the Post-Gupta form of *y*. But in line 9 (*jishṇu*) there is used the North-Eastern form of *sh*. It seems to me, that we have here an indication of the exact time when the North-Western Post-Gupta alphabet was first introduced into Nêpāl. It must have been during the reign of Jishṇu Gupta, in the middle of the seventh century. This alphabet did not, however, at once entirely supersede the older North-Eastern variety. The latter continued to exist by the side of the newer N.-W. Post-Gupta variety, for about two centuries

longer, being used by the Lichchhavi family in their inscriptions, while the Thākuri family adopted the newer variety.

The sketch-map of the distribution of the two Northern varieties throws some further light on the subject. It will be observed that, with two exceptions, all the inscriptions in the North-Eastern alphabet lie from Kōsam or Allahabad east-ward. Those in the North-Western variety lie to the West and South-West of the North-Eastern area. This is the case up to about the year 500 A. D. After this date (as will be seen by the dates noted with the place-names) the North-Western inscriptions spread over the whole of the North-Eastern area. The only exception is the Pahlādpur inscription, with its very early date of about 370 A. D. (No. 2 in List I.).

Another noteworthy point is, that the North-Eastern inscriptions are nearly all crowded together, just south of Nêpāl, and in (what I may call) the home-provinces of the Gupta empire. Add to this, that, in India proper at least, they are confined entirely to the period of the height of the Gupta rule, *i. e.*, to the reigns of Chandra Gupta II, Kumara Gupta I, and Skanda Gupta. The earliest is the Allahabad inscription under Chandra Gupta II, about 400 A. D., the latest is the Gaḍhwā inscription, under Skanda Gupta, in 467 A. D. (see List III). Their period is just about a hundred years, from the end of the 4th to the end of the 5th century. The Pahlādpur inscription certainly falls before that period; for it shows the very ancient Indo-scythic angular form of *m*. The exact epoch when this angular form of *m* was superseded by the square form *𑀕* is not yet known; and it is very desirable that this point should be statistically worked out. But the Bijayagadh inscriptions of the year 371 A. D. shows the same angular *m*, and the gold coins of Chandra Gupta I and Samudra Gupta already show the first beginnings of the use of the square form of *m*. The Pahlādpur inscription may, therefore, safely be placed about 370 A. D. or earlier, that is, in the reign of Chandra Gupta I. It seems clear from this fact, that the North-Eastern alphabet has some peculiar connection with the imperial Gupta family. If we remember that this alphabet was also current in Nêpāl and that the Guptas entertained intimate relations with the ruling Lichchhavi family of Nêpāl, it becomes probable that the North-Eastern alphabet was introduced into India proper under the Lichchhavi influence. Chandra Gupta I married a Lichchhavi princess and founded the Gupta empire. Samudra Gupta and Chandra Gupta II gave it its widest extension, and they left their landmarks in the Farīdpur inscription in the east, and the Mihrauli and Udaigiri inscriptions in the West and South-West (Nos. 1, 4, 5, in list III). As the Lichchhavis themselves originally came from North-Eastern India (Pataliputra = Patna), their alphabet possibly may, after all, claim an indigenous Indian origin.

I see that Professor Bühler suggests, that the dates of Dr. Bhagwanlāl's Nos. 1—3 are not to be interpreted (as done by Mr. Fleet and myself) as Gupta, but as Vikrama dates (see *Vienna Oriental Journal*, Vol. V. p. 219). If this suggestion should prove correct, some of the details in the foregoing observations will require re-adjustment; but the main points of my argument are not affected by this question. Nor, so far as I can see, does it affect Prof. Bühler's own view regarding the origin of the Gupta era. That view does seem to me probably true. We must await Prof. Bühler's promised full statement of his objections to Mr. Fleet's interpretation of the dates. In the meantime the probabilities seem to me greatly in favour of the latter. It seems difficult to understand how the Mālava era — for that is really the Vikrama era — should have got into Nêpāl at so early a period.

With regard to the Farīdpur inscription, referred to several times in the foregoing remarks, I may give the following preliminary information. It was found, not long ago, in the Farīdpur district of Eastern Bengal. It is written in the early Gupta characters of the North-Eastern class. It shows throughout the old form *𑀮* of *y*, the transitional *𑀮* and modern *𑀮* forms never occur. It further shows throughout the North-Eastern form *𑀮* of *sh*, which is very difficult to distinguish from the dental *s*. The inscription refers itself to the reign of

a king Dharmāditya, but is not dated. It records the gift of a piece of land to a Brāhman Sômasvāmin of the Lauhitya *gôtra* and the Vâjasinêya *śākhâ*, by a person called Vasu-dêva Svāmin, apparently for the erection of a *dharmasûla*. The inscription commences as follows : —

Svasty = asyām = prithivyām = apratirathê = Nṛiga-Naghusa - Yaydity - Ambarisha - samadhrita - Mahārājādhirāja - Śrī - Dharmāditya - bhāṭṭāraka - rājyê tad - anumōdan - ālabdh - āspadê (nadhyaṇa ?) Kāśīkūyān mahāpratihār - ôparika - Nāgādêvasy = āddhyāsana-kālê.

This commencement strikingly resembles that in the well-known Gupta inscriptions. The term *apratiratha*, moreover, is one peculiar to Samudra Gupta (see Fleet, p. 14, footnote 4); and there are other indications, pointing to him as being referred to here as the Dharmāditya. All the great Gupta rulers, Chandragupta II., Kumara Gupta I., Skanda Gupta, have honorific titles formed with *āditya* (Vikramāditya, Mahēndrāditya, Kramāditya, respectively). In all probability, Samudra Gupta, who was the first great ruler of the family, also had such a title; and I would suggest, that Dharmāditya was his title. Soldered on to the plate is a seal, showing in the upper portion the standing figure of Lakshmi, entwined by lotus stalks and flowers, and on each side a very small elephant besprinkling her with water. The scene shews a very close resemblance to one represented on a tympanum in the Ananta cave, and figured in Fergusson and Burgess's *Cave Temples of India*, plate I, fig. 1. Similar, though not quite so closely resembling, is the representation on the back of the uppermost beam of the southern gateway of the Sanchi *stûpa*, figured in Fergusson's *Tree and Serpent Worship*, plate VIII; also that on the Raypur copper-plate seal, figured in Fleet's *Gupta Inscriptions*, plate XXVII. In the lower compartment, almost effaced, there seems to be the legend *Śrī-Mahārājādhirāja-Dharmādityasya*. This, no doubt, is not the usual seal of the Guptas; but there is nothing to show, when the more usual Garuḍa seal was adopted. However, the question of the ascription of the plate may better be reserved till I shall be in a position to publish the whole inscription. Unfortunately the plate has suffered in some places so much from corrosion and inexperienced cleaning that I have not yet succeeded in fully reading it.

FOLKLORE IN SALSETTE.

BY GEO. FR. D'PENHA.

No. 12. — *The Fortune-teller's Daughter.*

Once upon a time there was a woman whose vocation was to tell the fortunes of people. She was one day invited by the *pâtêl* of her village to tell the fortune of his new-born child. The *pâtêl* had also invited the prince of that village¹ to witness the ceremony.

Late in the evening the fortune-teller went to the *pâtêl's* house, but as she was entering the house she was stopped by the prince, who told her to see him on her way home. She promised to do so and entered the house, the prince remaining outside as a sentry to prevent any stranger entering the house during the fortune-telling. The fortune-teller, having performed many ceremonies and read out of many books, told the *pâtêl* what would be the fate of his child.

After she had finished her business and received her dues, and was going away, she was again stopped by the prince who asked her what was in the fortune of the *pâtêl's* child.

The fortune-teller replied : — “What the child's fortune is I have told the *pâtêl*; why do you want to know?”

But the prince alternately begged and threatened, and said he would not let her go till she had told him the child's fortune. So at last she told him what it was. The prince next

¹ [This is interesting as shewing what ideas the words “king, prince, queen, princess,” &c., convey to the minds of the “folk.” The prose rendering of “king” should no doubt be “local magnate.” — Ed.]

asked her to tell him his own fate. She was at first reluctant to do so, but after much pressure, she said :—

“Your fate, O prince, is this. To whatever age you may attain ; whenever you may die, — now or a hundred years hence, — it is written in your luck, that your head will be pounded by a strange queen ! This, O prince, is in store for you !”

When the prince heard this, he thought to himself : — “Surely not ! I will not wait to be killed by a strange queen, or have my head pounded.”

Thus thinking, he drew his sword and cut off his own head, which flew off and fell into a *jungal* close by !

Now it happened that the king of a neighbouring country passed that way on the following morning, and seeing the head of the prince, took it up, carefully wrapped it in a handkerchief, and, carrying it home, put it in a drawer. Every day, before he left the house and as soon as he came home, the king used to open the drawer and look at it. The key of this drawer he kept in his own pocket, while the rest of the keys were in the custody of the queen, who was never told a word about the head. The fact of giving her all the keys but one aroused the curiosity of the queen. So one day she slyly took the key from the king's pocket, and when he was gone, she opened the drawer, and there saw the head. The face being beardless, it looked like that of a woman. She suspected, therefore, that the head must be that of a concubine of the king ; and thought that the concubine having died, and the king being very much attached to her, he must have brought home her head and kept it *in memoriam*, that he might at least have the satisfaction of looking at her head ! This naturally aroused a spirit of jealousy in her breast ; so she took the head, and putting it in a mortar, pounded it into fine powder with a rice-pounder. Thus was fulfilled what was told by the fortune-teller to the prince !

When the fortune-teller got home it was later than she expected, for she had had to tell the fortunes of two persons. Her daughter asked her why she was so late, and she replied she was late because she had had to find out and tell the fortunes of two persons, the *pdîl's* child and the prince. The girl then asked her mother to tell her her own fate, and after much entreaty and pressure, the old woman said : — “In your fortune, daughter, it is written that you will marry a *Mâng*,² by whom you will have a son, and later on you will marry your own son. So it is written in your fortune !”

“Surely not,” thought the daughter to herself. “I marry a *Mâng* ! That will never do. I would rather go to a desert and lead a solitary life than remain here and eventually marry a *Mâng* !”

So saying, she left the house then and there, and went into a desert, where she lived on what leaves and fruit she could get. She lived in this state for some time, when one day she saw a person coming towards her on horse-back. The cavalier asked her who she was, and what she was doing there. She told him that she was a person living in retirement. He, too, said he was also living in retirement, and asked her if she would accompany him and live with him. Not knowing who the speaker was, and thinking he was a great personage, the fortune-teller's daughter willingly agreed to go with him. Now this man's house was several days' journey from there, and on the way she ate and drank with him.³ When they reached his house, the fortune-teller's daughter found in it the flesh of dead cattle and date-palm brooms, which are the sure signs of a *Mâng*. She cursed herself for agreeing to accompany the man ; but she was reminded of what her mother had told her, and which had proved true, despite her living in retirement ! She left the *Mâng's* house immediately, and again took to the desert, but this time to another one. She, however, became pregnant, and in due time brought forth a son. She took the child, tore a piece of her own *sârî*, and, wrapping

* A *Mâng* is a low caste person ; he is considered even lower than a *Mâhâr*. † Euphemism for sexual intercourse.

the child up in it, threw it in a bush, and went to a strange country, where she took employment in the king's house as a washer-woman. The child was picked up by the king of another country, who had happened to pass through the forest, and taken home and well cared for. As the king had no children of his own, he adopted this child as a son, and it was everywhere known as the prince of that country. One day this prince (for so we must call him), when he had grown up, happened, in company of a friend, to pass through the country where his mother was, and saw her at the tank washing clothes. He was so enamoured of her beauty that he asked her whence she came. She told him that she was a servant to the king of that country. He then went home and said to his foster-father :—

“Father, there is a young woman at the palace of a certain king, and unless you get me married to her, I will never rest satisfied, and starve myself to death.”

The king, who loved him exceedingly, did not like to refuse his request, and at once wrote to the other king and made arrangements for the marriage. Both parties made preparations on a grand scale to celebrate the occasion with befitting pomp, and in due time, on an appointed day, the son was married to his mother unawares. The wedding over, the bride was taken to the bridegroom's house. In the evening when they retired to bed, the bride chanced to see a rag hanging on the bedstead. On close examination she found it to be the very same rag, which she had torn from her *sārī*, and in which she had wrapped her child before throwing it in the bush. She at once concluded that she had married her own son! But, there being no help for it, she lived with him happily as his wife! She was, however, convinced of the truth of what her mother had told her; and had learnt that no one can ever escape from the fate that is written on the forehead.⁴

MISCELLANEA.

MISCELLANEOUS DATES FROM INSCRIPTIONS AND MSS.

1.—Mr. Fleet's examinations of Hindu dates have led to the conclusion¹ that “even in Southern India, or at least in some parts of it, the *amānta* southern arrangement of the lunar fortnights was not coupled with the Śaka years until a comparatively late period,” in fact, not before A. D. 804. Compared with this, it may be interesting to learn from some dates in M. A. Barth's *Inscriptions Sanscrites du Cambodge*, that, in Cambodia, the *amānta* scheme was used in connection with the Śaka era at least as early as A. D. 626.

On p. 41 of M. Barth's volume is a date of a stone inscription from Vat Chakret, the chief items of which are²—

Pinḍibhūtē śak-ābdē vasu-jaladhi-śarair=
vvasarē Mādhav-ādaū kumudavana-

patau Tāvurē Kṛittikāyām! ; i.e., in the Śaka year 548, on the first day of Vaiśākha, the moon being in (the sign) Taurus (and) in (the *nakṣatra*) Kṛittikā.

This date does not furnish sufficient particulars for exact identification, but the fact that the moon is stated to have been in the *nakṣatra* Kṛittikā (No 3) proves all the same that the first of Vaiśākha spoken of was the first of the bright half, and the month therefore the *amānta* Vaiśākha. For had it been the first of the dark half, or, in other words, the first of the *pūrṇimānta* Vaiśākha, which follows immediately upon the full-moon day of Chaitra, the moon would have been in Chitrā (No. 14) or Svāti (No. 15). And the possible equivalents of Vaiśākha-śudi 1, i.e., the first of the *amānta* Vaiśākha, actually are :—

for Śaka 548 current, the 13th April, A. D. 625, when the first *tithi* of the bright half ended 16 h.

⁴ [This story is interesting for three reasons. It introduces us to a novel and very quaint version of our old friend Blue Beard. It gives us an insight into a queer state of morality, in which it is a more dreadful thing for a woman to marry into a caste beneath her than to marry her own son. It is to be observed that the heroine calmly endures the latter evil, but cannot bear the former. And the moral of the tale apparently is that it is no sin to follow your fate, whatever it may be. This is a tale among Christians, be it observed. — ED.]

¹ See *Gupta Inscriptions*, Introduction, p. 79, note 2; and *ante*, Vol. XVII. pp. 141 and 142.

² I quote the words, as corrected by the Editor.

18 m., and the moon was in Kṛittikā up to about 23h. after mean sunrise; and —

for Śaka 548 expired, the 3rd April, A. D. 626, when the first tithi of the bright half ended 4 h. 45 m., and the moon entered Kṛittikā about 6 h. 34 m. after mean sunrise.

In a short inscription from Vat Prey Vier, on p. 74 of the same volume, we find an even more interesting date, of which it will be sufficient to quote the words —

Yātē kālē Śakānām nava-tanu-vishayair =
Mmādhavē shōḍaś-āhē Jivas-chāpē=ja-sūryyō
maitram=indur;
i. e., when the Śaka year 589 had expired, on the
sixteenth day of Vaiśākha, Jupiter being in (the
sign) Chāpa (or Dhanuḥ), the sun in Mēsha,
and the moon in (the nakshatra) Anurādhā.

Here again the Vaiśākha of the date was clearly the *amānta* Vaiśākha, and the 16th day, spoken of, was Vaiśākha-badi 1, and the true equivalent of the date undoubtedly is the 15th April, A.D. 667, as may be seen from the following data. The new-moon which introduced the bright half of Vaiśākha of Śaka 589 expired was 9 h. after mean sunrise of the 30th March, A.D. 667. Counted from that day, the 16th day was the 15th April, A.D. 667, when the first tithi of the dark half (of the *amānta* Vaiśākha) ended 4 h. 28 m., and when the moon was in Anurādhā up to about 22 h. 20 m. after mean sunrise. On the same 15th April the sun was in the sign Mēsha, which it had entered on the 20th March; and Jupiter, as required, was in Dhanuḥ, having entered that sign, by the Sūryasiddhānta rule without *bija*, on the 20th January, A.D. 667, and remaining in it till the 16th January, A.D. 668.

The statement that Jupiter was in (the 9th sign) Dhanuḥ in this case is really equivalent to saying that the current Jovian year was Krōdhana, the $(12 + 12 + 9 =)$ 33rd year, counted from Vijaya as the first; and the special interest of this date lies in this that, while the scheme of its lunar month is the *amānta*, so-called southern scheme, the system followed in regard to the Jovian year is the northern mean-sign system.

On p. 68 of M. Barth's volume the 10th day of Vaiśākha of the same Śaka year 589 is mentioned with, amongst others, the remark that the moon had reached the middle of the sign Simha. This date would correspond to the 9th April, A. D.

667, when the 10th tithi of the bright half ended about 17 h. 26 m. after mean sunrise, and when, at sunrise, the moon was in the eleventh degree of Simha.

2. — On p. 54 of the late Dr. Burnell's *Elements of South-Indian Palaeography* we find the remark that the Javanese Śaka era begins in A. D. 74; and this remark has *ante*, Vol. X. p. 214, note 7, been quoted by another distinguished scholar, apparently in support of the statement that "in ancient times the initial dates from which the different Indian eras were counted were subject to fluctuations of several years." Whatever may be the practice of quite modern times, it is certain that down to nearly the end of the 14th century A. D. the Śaka reckoning in Java did not differ from the customary Indian reckoning. This may be seen from the following Javanese Śaka dates, which all work out properly with the ordinary epoch A. D. 77-78.

Professor Kern has published² a Sanskrit inscription from Java of the Śaka year 654, the date of which he reads thus: —

Śakēndrē-tigatē śrut-īndriya-rasair = angī-
(īkī)kṛitē vatsarē

vār = śndau dhavala-trayōdaśi-tithau Bha-
drōttarē Kārttikē!; i. e., in the Śaka year 654, expired, on Monday, the 13th lunar day of the bright half of Kārttika, the moon being in (the *nakshatra*) Uttarabhadrapadā. — The corresponding day, for Śaka 654 expired, and with the ordinary epoch of the Śaka era, is Monday, the 6th October, A. D. 732, when the 13th tithi of the bright half ended 18 h. 17 m., and the moon was in Uttarabhadrapadā up to about 15 h. 6 m. after mean sunrise.

And in a paper³ of Professor Kern's "over een Oudjavaansche Oorkonde van Śaka 782" there are two other Javanese dates, one of which is —

Sakavarshatita 782, Kārttikamāsa, tithi trayō-
daśi śuklapaksha, . . . Vri-vāra, . . . Asvini
nakshatra, . . . Vyatipātayōga, . . .
Taittilakarana; i. e., Śaka 782, Brihaspati-vāra
or Thursday, the 13th lunar day of the bright
half of Kārttika, the *nakshatra* Asvini, the *yōga*
Vyatipāta, and the *karana* Taitila; and the
other —

Sakavarshatita 1295, Asujimāsa, tithi trayōdaś
krishnapaksha, . . . Su-vāra . . .; i. e.,
Śaka 1295, Śukra-vāra or Friday, the 13th lunar
day of the dark half of Āśvina.

² From the copy which I owe to the kindness of Professor Kern I see that the inscription was originally edited by him in the *Bijdragen tot de Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indië*, 4e volgr. Dl. X.

³ In *Verlagen en Mededeelingen der Kon. Akad. van Wetenschappen, Letterkunde*, 2 R., 10 D., Amsterdam 1881, pp. 94 and 102.

Here the proper equivalents, with the ordinary epoch of the Śaka era, are : — for the first date, and Śaka 782 expired, Thursday, the 31st October, A. D. 860, when the 13th *tithi* of the bright half and the *karaṇa* Taitila ended 10 h. 29 m., and when the *nakṣatra* was *Asvini* up to 11 h. 10 m., and the *yōga* *Vyatipāta* up to 5 h. 16 m. after mean sunrise; and for the second date, and the *amānta* Āśvina of Śaka 1295 expired, Friday, the 14th October, A. D. 1373, when the 13th *tithi* of the dark half ended 20 h. 49 m. after mean sunrise.

3. — *Ante*, Vol. XVIII. p. 162, and Vol. XIX. pp. 129 and 426, Mr. Fleet has treated of some Śaka dates which, instead of quoting a lunar month, give us the sign of the zodiac in which the sun happened to be on the day intended by the date. An early Vikrama date, which is very similar to Mr. Fleet's Śaka date in Vol. XIX. p. 129, occurs in line 32 of the *Shēkhavati* (or *Harsha*) stone inscription of the reign of the *Chāhamāna* *Vigraharāja*, first published in the *Journal Beng. As. Soc.*, Vol. IV. pp. 370-384. According to the rubbings and impressions supplied to me by Mr. Fleet and Dr. Burgess, the date, which is given incorrectly in the published version, runs really thus : —

Jātē=vdā(bdā)nām sahasrē triguna-nava-yutē
Sīmha-rāsau gatē=rkkē

śuklā y=āsit=tri[ti*][yā] Subha-Kara-sahitā
Sōma-vārēṇa tasyām ;

i. e., when 1027 years were completed, and when the sun was in the sign *Simha*, on the third bright lunar day which was attended by (the *nakṣatra*) *Kara* (or *Hasta*) and (the *yōga*) *Subha*, on a Monday.—In northern V. 1027 expired the sun entered the sign *Simha* 9 h. 49·8 m. after mean sunrise of the 26th July, A. D. 970, which was the 6th of the dark half of the *pūrṇimānta* *Bhādrapada*. The third of the following bright half of the same *Bhādrapada* was Monday, the 8th August, A. D. 970, when the third *tithi* of the bright half ended 4 h. 15 m., and when the *nakṣatra* was *Hasta* up to 12 h. 29 m. and the *yōga* *Subha* up to 13 h. 26 m. after mean sunrise.

Dates of this kind are common enough in Bengālī MSS.⁵ And some of these dates again are peculiar in specifying the degree in which the sun happened to be on the day of the date. Thus, according to the late Dr. Rājēndralāl Mitra's *Notices*, Vol. VI. p. 238, a MS. of the *Saṃskāra-paddhati-rahasya*, which is written in Bengālī characters, is dated —

Śakē vāṇ-āchala-tithi-mitē bhāskarē Karkāṭa-
sthē

vimśaty-āmsē Vidhusuta-dinē śukla-pakṣhē
cha shashṭhyām ;

i. e., in Śaka 1575, when the sun was in the sign *Karkāṭa*, in the 20th degree, on Wednesday, the sixth lunar day of the bright half. — In Śaka 1575 expired the *Karkāṭa-saṃkrānti* took place 16 h. 5·2 m. after mean sunrise of the 30th June, A. D. 1653; and the sun entered the 20th degree of the sign some time on Wednesday, the 20th July, A. D. 1653. This Wednesday was the 6th of the bright half of *Śrāvaṇa*, for the 6th *tithi* of the bright half ended on it, about 15 h. 18 m. after mean sunrise.

These are clearly luni-solar dates. But in some Bengālī MSS we also find purely solar dates. Thus, according to Professor Eggeling's *Catalogue*, p. 211, a MS. of the *Sarasvatī Prakriyā* is dated —

Śakē sapta-dvi-sapt-aika-saṃkhyē Mēsham=itē
ravau ।

Trītiyē=hni Ravēr=vārē lipyā pūrtim=agād=
iyam ॥ Śak=ābdāḥ 1727 ॥ ;

i. e., in Śaka 1727, when the sun had entered the sign *Mēsha*, on the third day, a Sunday — The *Mēsha-saṃkrānti* at the end of Śaka 1727 current took place 1 h. 29 m. after mean sunrise of Thursday, the 11th April, A. D. 1805; and the day of the date is clearly Sunday, the 14th April, A. D. 1805, which by the lunar calendar was the first of the dark half of the *amānta* *Chaitra*.

And according to the same *Catalogue*, p. 35, a Bengālī MS. of *Surēśvarāchārya's* *Bṛihadāranya-ka-bhāṣhyavārttika* is dated —

navanavaty-adhika-chaturdaśa-śata-mita-śakābdē
Chaitrasya dvādaś-āmsē Su(su)kravārē ;

i. e., in the Śaka year 1499, in the 12th degree of *Chaitra*, on Friday.—By the result of my calculations the year of this date is the current solar year Śaka 1499. In that year, the solar month *Chaitra* commenced 17 h. 25·6 m. after mean sunrise of Monday, the 25th February, A. D. 1577, and the sun was in the 12th degree from some time on Friday, the 8th March, A. D. 1577, which was the 4th of the dark half of the *pūrṇimānta* *Chaitra* of Śaka 1499, current.

4.—Dates are sometimes recorded in days of the *Kaliyuga*. A very interesting date of this description is contained in the following

⁵ Compare e.g. Dr. Rājēndralāl Mitra's *Notices*, Vol. II. p. 310; Vol. III. p. 171; etc.

verses of Shadguruśishya's *Védārthadīpikā*,⁶ in which the author tells us that he completed his work, when the number of days of the Kaliyuga was 1 565 132 :—

Kha-gô-tyā-nmê-shu-mâ-y=êti⁷ Kaly-ahar-
gaganê sati |

Sarvānukramanī-vṛttir=jâtā Védārthadīpikā ||
Lakshāni pañchadaśa vai pañchashasṭi-
sahasrakam |

Sa-dvātrīṃśach-ḥhataṃ ch=êti dina-vāky-
ārtha iritah ||

Expressed in the days of the Julian period, the epoch of the Kaliyuga is—

588 465.75 days;
+ 1565 132 days;

sum 2153 597.75 days of the Julian period
= the 24th March, A. D. 1184, 18 h. after mean sunrise.

Accordingly, the day actually given us by Shadguruśishya would correspond to the 24th March, A. D. 1184. But since this is the day of the *Mêsha-samkrānti*⁸ at the end of the solar year Kaliyuga 4285 = Śaka 1106 current, it appears highly probable that, what Shadguruśishya meant to intimate, is merely, that he finished his work in Kaliyuga 4285 = Śaka 1106 expired, and that he has simply copied the number of days, given by him, from the calendar.

That the day put down in the date was the day of the *Mêsha-samkrānti*, Shadguruśishya indeed has plainly suggested himself. For there can be no doubt whatever that the true reading of the first half of the first of the above verses is—

Kha-gô=ntyān=Mêsham=âp=êti⁹ kaly-ahar-
gaganê sati, — i. e., 'when the number of days of the Kaliyuga was the number denoted by *khagô=ntyān=Mêsham=âpa* "the sun passed from the last sign on to the sign *Mêsha*;" (kh=2, g=3, y=1, m=5, sh=6, m=5, and p=1).

5.—In the Verāval inscription of the reign of the Vāghēla Arjunadēva, the Mahāmāda samvat or Hijra year 662 is put down along with the Vikrama, Valabhi, and Simha years to which the day of the date belonged. And in MSS. I have sometimes found Hijra years quoted by the side of the corresponding Śaka years. The Hijra year, described as the Yāvana year,

is quoted alone in the following date of a MS. of a commentary on the *Sūryasiddhānta*, written in Maithilī characters (apparently) in Oudh :¹⁰—

Turaga-nava-himāmsu-ksh-m-āṅkitē Yāvanê-
bdê

charama - Śuchi - chaturthyām kṛishṇa-
pakshê-hni Jaivê |;

i. e., in the Yāvana or Hijra year 1197, on the fourth lunar day of the dark half of the second summer-month (Āshāḍha), on Thursday. — As the Hijra year 1197 commenced on the 7th December, A. D. 1782, the date should fall in A. D. 1783 or Śaka 1705 expired. And for Śaka 1705 expired the 4th of the dark half of the *amānta* Āshāḍha corresponds to Thursday, the 17th July, A. D. 1783, when the fourth *tithi* of the dark half ended 21 h. 10 m. after mean sunrise.

6. — *Ante*, Vol. XIX. p. 6, I have attempted to prove that the Lakshmanasēna era commenced in A. D. 1119, and I have shown that, assuming my epoch to be correct, the difference between a year of that era and the corresponding expired Śaka year must always be 1010, or 1041, or 1042. In support of my views, I would now draw attention to two dates in the late Dr. Rājendralāl Mitra's *Notices*, which I had formerly overlooked.

According to Vol. VII p. 169, a MS. of Bhavadatta's commentary on the *Sisupalavadha* is dated La-sam 512 | Sakābdah 1552 |. Here the difference between the two years is 1040; and, in accordance with what I have previously stated, the Lakshmanasēna year must have been the current year 512, and the date written in one of the months from Kārttika to Phālguna.

According to Vol. V. p. 84, a MS. of Madhusūdana's *Kantakōddhara* which is written in Maithilī characters, contains the lines —

chakrē Rāmakanīyasô Svanipatêḥ sītāmsu-
nand-āmbudhāv=

āṅkē Phālguna-saptamī-Ravidinē Gangā-
Gaṇêś-ārchakaḥ,—

which give us for calculation the (Lakshmanasēna) year 491, and the seventh lunar day (of either the bright or the dark half) of Phālguna, joined with a Sunday. Here, the month being Phālguna, the date should fall either in Śaka (491 + 1040 =) 1531 expired, or in Śaka (491 + 1041 =) 1532 expired; but calculations for Śaka 1531 yield no

⁶ See Professor Macdonell's Edition, p. 168; *Indische Studien*, Vol. VIII. p. 160; and Professor Aufrecht's *Oxford Catalogue*, p. 378.

⁷ Such is the reading of the published texts, but it yields no sense. I shall show presently what I consider to be the right reading.

⁸ It took place 8 h. 58.6 m. after mean sunrise.

⁹ Three of Professor Macdonell's MSS. actually read *mêsham* (not *mêshum*), and they have the sign of *anusvara* above the *akshara* preceding *tyā*.

¹⁰ Dr. Rājendralāl Mitra's *Notices*, Vol. V. p. 149.

satisfactory result. In Saka 1532 expired, the seventh *tithi* of the bright half of Phālguna ended about 18 h after mean sunrise of Saturday, the 9th February, A.D. 1611, which also does not suit the requirements of the case. On the other hand, in the dark half of the *amānta* Phālguna of Saka 1532 expired —

the 6th *tithi* ended 1 h. 38 m. before mean sunrise of Saturday, 23 February, A.D. 1611;

the 7th *tithi* ended 0 h. 17 m. before mean sunrise of Sunday, 24 February, A. D. 1611; and

the 8th *tithi* ended 1 h. 25 m. after mean sunrise of Monday, 25 February, A.D. 1611.

It is true that by this result no *tithi* would have ended on the Sunday, and that the Sunday would have been put down in the calendar, like the Monday, as the 8th. But the *tithis* have here been calculated according to Ujjain time, and considering that the date undoubtedly was written far to the east of Ujjain, the seventh *tithi* would for the writer of the date really have ended some time after sunrise of the Sunday;¹¹ and Sunday, the 24th February A.D. 1611, therefore is the proper equivalent of the date, — deduced from the epoch of the Lakshmanasēna era A.D. 1118-19.

7. — A date of the Āshādhādi Vikrama year 1574, which does not admit of verification, is given in Professor Macdonell's edition of Kātyāyana's *Sarvānukramanī*, preface, p. xiii. And another Āshādhādi date, according to Professor Eggeling's *Catalogue*, p. 409, occurs in a MS. of part of Hēmadri's *Chaturvarga-chintāmani*, written in Western India, and is worded thus :—

Samvat 15 Āshādhādi 81 varshē 5 Śrāvana-
sūdi pañchami aparaṁ shashtī Budhē.

As might have been expected, the date falls in the northern Vikrama year 1581, expired, and the corresponding date, for that year, is Wednesday, the 6th July, A. D. 1524, when the fifth *tithi* of the bright half ended 1 h. 25 m. after mean sunrise.

In addition to quoting the 5th *tithi* which ended on the Wednesday, and from which the Wednesday received its number 5, this date also quotes the following sixth *tithi*, and it is in this respect similar¹² to No. 49 of my Vikrama dates, ante, Vol. XIX. p. 33; but what makes this Āshādhādi date more interesting, is the fact that the 6th *tithi* also ended on the Wednesday, 1 h. 17 m.

¹¹ I now find that by Prof. Jacobi's Special Tables for the Śūryasiddhānta with *bīja*, published in *Epigraphia Indica*, Pt. VIII., the seventh *tithi*, even at Ujjain, ended 3 *ghāṭikas* after mean sunrise of this Sunday.

¹² Another date of this description occurs in a MS.

before sunrise of the Thursday, and was therefore, in fact, a *kshaya-tithi*.

8. — In dates like the preceding the ordinals *pañchamī*, *shashthī*, etc., clearly denote the time occupied by the *tithi* itself, not the civil day on which the *tithi* ended; and those dates thus help to explain other dates in which the writers undoubtedly have quoted actually current *tithis*, with the week days on which they commenced.

According to my *Report on Sanskrit MSS. for 1880-81*, p. 22, a palm-leaf MS. of Amarasimha's *Nāmalingānuśāsana* is dated :—

Śrīmad-Rāmachandradēva - v i j a y a r ā j y ē
Kumkupa-vishayē gata-Kali 4398
Hēmalambba-samvatsarē Jyēsthā-vadi
ashtamyāyām¹³ Vṛhaspati-dinē !

By the southern luni-solar system the year Hēmalamba corresponds to Kaliyuga 4398 expired, and the 8th *tithi* of the dark half of the *amānta* Jyēsthā of that year commenced on Thursday, the 18th June, A. D. 1297, 1 h. 37 m. after mean sunrise, and ended at mean sunrise of the following day. Here the Thursday, quoted in the date, was civilly *badi* 7, and the 8th *tithi* was either a *kshaya-tithi* or ended after true sunrise of the Friday. And the meaning of the date clearly is, that the writing was finished on the Thursday, during the 8th *tithi*.

In Professor Bhāṇḍārkar's *Report for 1888-84*, p. 357, the date of the composition of Mahēśvara's commentary on Purushōttama's *Vishṇubhakti-kalpatalā* is given thus :—

Śrīmad-bhūvalayānuranjana-lasat-kīrtī =
nṛipād=Vikramāj =
jātē=śch(śv)-āmbudhi-rāga-bhūmi-gaṇitē =
bdē Mārgasīrshē=rjunē !
pakshē mukhyajaya-tithau Suraguru-
(rōṇ)=vārē Virūpāksha-bhūr =
nirmāti sma Mahēśvarō guru-kripash =
tikām=imām suṁdarām ||

Here, again, the third (or *mukhyajaya*) *tithi* of the bright half of Mārgasīrsha of V. 1647 expired commenced on Thursday, the 19th November, A. D. 1590, 1 h. 38 m. after mean sunrise, and ended 0 h. 51 m. after mean sunrise of the following day.

And according to Professor Bendall's *Catalogue*,

of the *Saptapādrīthi*, of which a page is photographed in Dr. Rājendralāl Mitra's *Notices*, Vol. II. : *Samvat* 1458 varshē Mōgha-vadi 6 anantara[m] *saptamyām tithau Gu[rū]dand*; corresponding, for the *pūrnimānta* Māgha of V. 1458, current, to Thursday, the 6th January, A.D. 1401.

¹³ Read *ashtamyān*.

p. 32, a palm-leaf MS. of Chandragômin's *Śishyalêkha-dharmakôvya* is dated : —

Samvat 200 . 4. Vaisâkha-śukl-âṣṭamyañ |
Sôma-dinê.

And here, again, the 8th *tithi* of the bright half of Vaisâkha of the expired Nêwâr year 204 commenced on Monday, the 15th April,

A. D. 1084, 8 h. 43 m. after mean sunrise, and ended 9 h. 59 m. after mean sunrise of the following day;¹⁴ and I here, too, take the meaning of the date to be, that the writer finished his work on the Monday, after the commencement of the 8th *tithi*.

Göttingen.

F. KIELHORN.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

AN ENGLISH INSCRIPTION AT MAULMAIN.

At Maulmain, on the platform of the chief pagoda, is a large bell of the usual Burmese type with a quaint inscription cut in English thereon, which is worth preserving : —

"He who destroyed to this bell they must be in

the great heell and unable to coming out. This bell is made by Koonâ Lingahyah the Priest and weight 600 viss.¹ No one body design to destroy this bell. Maulmain, March 30th, 1855."

R. C. TEMPLE.

BOOK-NOTICE.

The PRACHINA GUJARATI SAHITYA RATNAMALA, or Garland of Gems of Old Gujarâtî Literature. The First Gem, the MUGDHAVABODHAMAUKTIKA, or a Grammar for Beginners, of the Gujarâtî Language (V.-S. 1450). Edited by H. H. Dhruva, B.A., LL.B. Printed and published at the Subôdha-Prakâsh Press, Bombay. 1889. Pp. vii., 28, 55.

This work, edited by Mr. H. H. Dhruva, B.A., LL.B., is one of a series proposed by him to be issued with a view to rescue the old vernacular literature of India from the oblivion in which it is at present lying. Evidently Mr. Dhruva believes this work to be a grammar of the Gujarâtî language of the time to which it belongs (V.-S. 1450 = A. D. 1394). I shall presently examine how far this assumption on his part is based on a correct appreciation of the subject-matter of the work. But I propose first to point out some of the many mistakes and errors which have resulted from the evidently superficial manner in which Mr. Dhruva has studied the work, and the very careless way in which it has been edited.¹

Mr. Dhruva has based his edition on a single manuscript, — the one belonging to the Gujarât Vernacular Society of Ahmedabad. I have had the advantage of a look at this manuscript, and I shall point out some of the results of Mr. Dhruva's hurry and carelessness, by instances of disagreement between his manuscript and his edition.

At the end of page 4 of Mr. Dhruva's edition we find the expression गुरून् वन्दयित्वा. The original

manuscript has वन्दित्वा and not वन्दयित्वा, and the correct form here is of course वन्दित्वा. The causal form would be meaningless or absurd in this instance.

At the end of page 10 Mr. Dhruva gives some *Karikâs* on *Samâsa*. In the last verse of the last *Karikâ* Mr. Dhruva gives कर्मधारये, while the manuscript has कर्मधारये. This wrong grammar may be the result of a mere misprint; but being only one of many such instances, it indicates careless editing. The 3rd verse of the 2nd *Karikâ* has the expletive हि inserted superfluously. It does not exist in the original, and it makes the verse scan wrongly.

These are some of the minor errors into which the editor has run. There are, however, instances in which the results of hurry and want of careful study have been more serious. To cite some of these : —

Page 16, col. 1. — About the beginning of the vocabulary Mr. Dhruva has — जइ। यइ। तइ। तहि। The original manuscript has here तउ and not तइ, and the similarity in sound of जइ has betrayed the editor into putting तइ where the real word is तउ. This point owes its importance to the facts that तउ is the intermediate form from which the modern Gujarâtî word तो is derived, and that the broad pronunciation of ओ in this तो (as in "awe") is attributable to the pre-existent अउ in तउ.²

at the end of the work; while three lines above there is again "Auktika." As the title-page declares this book to be "*prathamam mauktikam*," the real name seems to be *Mugdhâvabôdhamauktika*. — EDITOR.]

² It would be well to indicate here that in Gujarâtî ए and ओ have each of them two distinct pronunciations, broad and narrow, or short and long; broad or short

¹⁴ Compare No. 168 of my Vikrama dates, ante, Vol. XIX. p. 361.

¹ One viss = 100 tickals = 3'65 lbs. avoirdupois.

² [A curious instance of this carelessness stares one in the face on the very title-page, where the name of the work is given in Roman characters as "*Mugdhâvabôdha Auktika*," but in Devânâgarî characters as "*Mugdhâvabôdhamauktika*." The latter form occurs also

At page 6 and also page 7 Mr. Dhruva has कर्ता उक्ति and कर्म उक्ति for what is rightly given in the original instance as कर्ता उक्ति and कर्म उक्ति. The *anusvāra* is not trifling or superfluous. It represents the locative case, कर्ता कर्म being the forms for कर्तरि, कर्मणि. These may be mere misprints, but as such they are none the less the results of great carelessness.

But a still more serious blunder appears at page 7, col. 1, when Mr. Dhruva puts: — अनङ् जिहां कर्ता कर्मणङ् बोलाइ ते कर्मकर्ता उक्ति कहियइ । [Mr. Dhruva's edition has कर्ता कर्मणङ् separated wrongly into कर्ता कर्मणङ् which makes no sense. This by the way.] Here the blunder consists in inverting the order of the words कर्म and कर्ता in the expression कर्ता कर्मणङ्. The original has कर्मः कर्ताणङ्. The sense is अन्यत् यत्र कर्म कर्तृत्वेन उच्यते सा कर्मकर्तरि उक्तिः कथ्यते; — "this division of उक्ति (voice) represents cases in which the कर्म is used as the कर्ता." Mr. Dhruva's reading would make it "कर्ता is used as कर्म," which is not intended. See the instance given ए मयं सुखिइ पढायइ । अयं मयः सुखेन पठ्यते. Here मयः, which is the कर्म, is used as the कर्ता. The object in sense is used as the subject in form. The name given to this उक्ति is कर्मकर्ता and not कर्ताकर्मि. This also indicates the sense above described.

In the opening portion of his edition Mr. Dhruva gives what he calls an analysis of the work. Here he has:—

"(5) Cases — seven," and then adds the remark "vocative not given." Here Mr. Dhruva forgets that the vocative is not known to Sanskrit grammar as a separate case by itself. It is only the nominative case used when addressing another person. This very work, at page 14, col. 1, under the chapter of the Cases, says आत्मन्त्रणे * * * प्रथमा, "the nominative is used in addressing another." Mr. Dhruva seems to have been misled by the facts that in English grammars, as also in Gujarātī grammars, the vocative is regarded as a separate case, and that the Sanskrit *Rāpāvali* gives vocative forms after the locative. But the

as in "care" and "awe;" and narrow or long as in "ache" and "boat." When a Gujarātī word having ए or ओ has in its antecedent Prākṛit or Dēśya form or intermediate stage अइ or अव, or अउ or अव, the pronunciation of the ए or ओ in the Gujarātī word is broad. When the antecedent Prākṛit (or Dēśya) form or intermediate stage has ए and ओ, the pronunciation (in the Gujarātī word) of ए or ओ is narrow; e. g. Dēśya

main cause of this error of his is his theory that this work is a grammar of the vernacular of the period, — a theory which I shall explode below.

Then the Analysis gives — "(19) Rules of Syntax." This appears to refer to the *Kārikās*, beginning from the end of page 17 to very nearly the end of page 20 in the body of the work. A glance at these will shew that they give no rules of "Syntax." The only rules in these *Kārikās* which may present an appearance of rules of Syntax, are those which deal with several *Kāraṅkas*, viz., कर्ता, कर्म, कारण, संग्रहान, अपादान, अधिकरण, and the संबन्ध sense of the Genitive. But these meanings or significations of the *Vibhaktis* (Cases) cannot, in strict propriety, be regarded as falling within the scope of "Syntax."

The Analysis is then concluded with "(21) Prepositions" [more correctly, he should have said 'Prefixes'] — "twenty." But Mr. Dhruva strangely omits to notice the concluding chapter of the book which gives a few rules of Prosody. His Analysis should have concluded; — "(22) Rudiments of Prosody."

I hope I have cited a sufficient number of instances to shew how superficially the work has been studied, and how carelessly it has been edited by Mr. Dhruva. But the superficiality of this study (if it can be called by the name of study) comes out boldly and strongly in his fundamentally erroneous theory about the nature of the work, which he has sadly failed to apprehend. He seems to regard this work as a Grammar of the Gujarātī language of the period (A. D. 1394). It is nothing of the kind at all, as will appear from a little careful examination of the text, which clearly shews that it is merely a मार्गोपदेशिका, a hand-book for the help of the beginner (मुग्ध), to teach Sanskrit Grammar through the medium of the vernacular of the period. Along with hurry and superficial observation, this error may be attributed to the feeling of overflowing patriotism which seems to have taken possession of Mr. Dhruva's mind, and has led him to imagine that so far back as 500 years ago his mother-tongue had a grammar of its own.

In examining Mr. Dhruva's theory I shall first point out the errors and wrong conclusions

बहलो = बलं Guj.; Sanskrit मलिनं = मइले Prāk., भुंङ् Guj. Sans. रबनी, Prāk. रयणी, Guj. रें. Sans. चतुष्कं, Prāk. चउक्कं, Guj. चौक्क. Prāk. कवण (for Sans. कः); Guj. कौण; while Sans. कदली, Prāk. केली, Guj. केळ; Sans. बर्, Prāk. बोर, Guj. बोर. Instances might be multiplied. ~ and ~̣ are used to show the broad ए and ओ.

into which he has fallen in consequence of holding that theory, and then state our grounds for holding that the work is merely a hand-book of Sanskrit Grammar.

First, then,—in his Analysis Mr. Dhruva says, “Vocative not given.” This remark, as has been already hinted above, proceeds from an assumption that this is a Gujarāṭi Grammar, and the fact that Gujarāṭi Grammars regard the Vocative as a separate case.

In his ‘Analysis’ Mr. Dhruva says:—

“(9) Kṛidanta forms like करी, करवा, करीने, करनार, करतो, &c.” Looking at the corresponding chapter in the book we find that this refers to the forms करी, करणहार, करतउ, used incidentally to explain the Sanskrit participial and other forms ending in सुस्, दृच्, and शद्. But even supposing for a moment that this work is a grammar of the vernacular of the period, Mr. Dhruva should have given the forms करी, करणहार, करतउ (the forms of the vernacular of the period), and not करीने, करनार, करतो (the forms of modern Gujarāṭi). He has in this instance been run away with by his patriotic hobby, so far as to unconsciously represent modern Gujarāṭi forms as treated of in the text.

Finally, Mr. Dhruva is forced to resort to a rather amusing shift in order to support his tottering theory, whenever at every turn it meets with some shock or other. The work gives क् and other non-Prākṛit vowels; this, Mr. Dhruva explains away, as a “Sanskritism.” There are three numbers given (Prākṛit has only two, having no dual); this Mr. Dhruva says, is a Sanskritism. The case-terminations given are Sanskrit and not Prākṛit; this again, says Mr. Dhruva, is a Sanskritism. The rules of Sandhi (which are unknown to Prākṛit) are again a Sanskritism, according to Mr. Dhruva. Samāsas giving forms confined to Sanskrit Grammar, the mention of *Ātmanēpada* forms of verbs (as Prākṛit has only *Parasmaipada* forms even in the Passive Voice), the Sanskrit terminations for roots,—all these are “Sanskritisms.” For Mr. Dhruva must maintain his theory at any cost. Where, then, we ask, is the Prākṛitism of the work to be found? Is it in the incidentally used Prākṛit terminations which Mr. Dhruva parades in all the importance of a bold black capital type? Mr. Dhruva is in the amusing position of a man who, looking at a peacock, would persistently swear it was a dog, and asked, whence the deep blue colour, whence the thick mass of rainbow-coloured feathers, whence the crest, the wings, the beak?, would reply “Oh! that much only is a peculiarity of the

peacock”! The fact of the matter is that Mr. Dhruva has started on a wrong line from the outset, with also a wrong foundation, and is therefore compelled to put up a prop here and a prop there to support the tottering superstructure.

I shall now proceed to indicate the grounds on which I base my contention that the work is a hand-book of Sanskrit Grammar and not of Gujarāṭi Grammar.

To begin, the very *Maṅgalācharaṇa* (the opening verse) shews the purport of the work:—

अहं प्रणम्य मुग्धानां बोधहेतोर्विधीयते ।

प्रायः प्राकृत उक्तीनां किञ्चिदस्मात्प्रायः ॥

“After bowing to the Arhat, I proceed to make, for the instruction of beginners, a collection of some of the rules of grammar, mostly in the Prākṛit (i. e. using for the greater part the Prākṛit language in the treatment of my subject).” The author uses the word प्रायः (mostly), because in the latter part of the text he has occasionally treated the whole subject in Sanskrit and not in Prākṛit. प्राकृत उक्तीनां is प्राकृते + उक्तीनां (संमह), and hence it cannot mean “a collection of Prākṛit Uktis.” प्राकृते is connected with क्रियते and not with उक्तीनाम्. Even if the locative form is allowed, by a strain, to represent the genitive sense, it would conflict with the word प्रायः, which will not then give a satisfactory meaning. The author must, therefore, be taken, even from this passage, to propose a collection of rules of Sanskrit Grammar, treated through the medium of Prākṛit.

The facts that the work gives letters like क्, &c., peculiar to Sanskrit only, the dual number, Sanskrit case-terminations, Sanskrit *Prātipadikas*, the rules of *Sandhi* and *Samāsa* peculiar to Sanskrit, and *Ātmanēpada* forms, clearly indicates that the book treats of Sanskrit Grammar and not of Prākṛit Grammar. It is very easy, but not safe, to explain all these facts away by calling them “Sanskritisms.” But it involves on the face of it a circumlocutory and inverted way of arguing. It has never struck Mr. Dhruva as peculiar, that so large a fund of peculiarities of Sanskrit Grammar should have crept into a Gujarāṭi Grammar with propriety, and without jarring on the sense of proportion. The author, probably holding that the title of *Vyākaraṇa* can be claimed only by an exhaustive work treated in Sanskrit, gave his work a far more modest name.

Mr. Dhruva may possibly have been misled by the facts that the whole treatment in the large portion of the work is carried on in Prākṛit, that the Sanskrit terminations are first preceded by the mention of Prākṛit terminations, and that Sanskrit instances are preceded by the citation

of instances in Prākṛit. But the whole tenor of the treatment shews that the Prākṛit terminations and instances are intended only to afford facility of understanding by the citation of things familiar for the teaching of things unfamiliar.

To cite an instance or two:—At page 4, col. 2 — (*kṛidantas*) we find the following:—
करी लेई वेई इत्यादि बोलिवई एक उक्तिमाहि पूर्व्वली क्रिया आगलि ईकार जिहां कहीइ तिहां त्वा प्रथय त्वा इसुड आवइ । —“in using such words as करी (doing), लेई (taking) वेई (giving), where in one sentence ई appears at the end of the first verb, the termination त्वा, i. e. त्वा, should be applied.” What does this shew? The author, in order to shew where and how a Sanskrit termination is to be applied, shews it by appealing in a practical way to an instance in the familiar Prākṛit, and points out the corresponding place of the termination. Thus the Prākṛit terminations, &c., being only a means to an end, sink into a secondary place, and prominence is clearly given to the Sanskrit terminations and forms. Yet Mr. Dhruva prints the ई in large type and puts त्वा and त्वा in small type. But we are consoled by the thought that the mere printing of big or small type will not affect the inherent tenor of the text.

The author goes on:— अव्यय त्वानइ कर्मिं द्वितीया । शिष्य शास्त्र पढी अर्थ पूछइ । पूछइ इसी क्रिया । कउण पूछइ शिष्य । जु पूछइ सु कर्ता तिहां प्रथमा । किछु पूछइ अर्थ जे पूछइ तं कर्मिं तिहां द्वितीया । किछु करी पूछइ पढी तिहां त्वा प्रथय । किछु पढी शास्त्र तिहां त्वानइ कर्मिं द्वितीया । शिष्यः शास्त्रं पठित्वा अर्थ पृच्छति । —“The indeclinable त्वा takes (governs) द्वितीया in the कर्म sense. [Then a Prākṛit sentence is given by way of instance]. शिष्य शास्त्र पढी अर्थ पूछइ,—‘the pupil, after reading the Śāstra, asks its sense.’ पूछइ is the क्रिया. Who asks?; शिष्य. He who asks is the कर्ता. There put the nominative (termination). What does he ask?; अर्थ. What he asks is the कर्म. There put the accusative (termination). After doing what, does he ask? After reading (the शास्त्र). There put the accusative termination in the कर्म sense. (Thus you have) शिष्यः शास्त्रं पठित्वा अर्थ पृच्छति.” This process indicates the steps through which the treatment passes. A Prākṛit sentence is given for a basis to start with, then each word is examined in its relation, and the terminations are shewn, which are to be put on according to the rules, till at length the final structure is built up in the resulting Sanskrit sentence. This is the synthetic manner, in which the author teaches up to the final instances.

This exposition of the mode of the author’s treatment should shew clearly that he is simply teaching Sanskrit Grammar through his vernacular. The same method of treatment has been observed by the author almost throughout this work. And in some places (as in the case of the तुम् termination, at p. 5) only Sanskrit instances are given. What does this shew? If the work were a Prākṛit Grammar, what need was there to give Sanskrit instances at all, along with the Prākṛit instances? And certainly, Prākṛit instances could not be properly altogether omitted (as they are occasionally), and only Sanskrit instances given, if this was a Prākṛit Grammar. The author has thrown Prākṛit into the background to such an extent that, as the work proceeds, the treatment in Prākṛit is abandoned in a great measure, as in the *Samśa* chapter, and finally altogether, as in the *Kārikās* on *Kāvaka*. Could this ever be a feature of a Prākṛit Grammar? After the beginner has gradually acquired familiarity with Sanskrit by the Prākṛit treatment in the first portion of the book, the author presumes the learner to be able to give up Prākṛit and understand the treatment in Sanskrit itself. This is undoubtedly the explanation of the change in the language of treatment. In fact the author has put the qualifying word प्रायः in his very opening verse.

I think I may, after all this explanation, hope that it will be regarded as clear that this work is a Sanskrit Grammar taught through the vernacular; and that it will be hardly necessary to point out that the Prākṛit and Sanskrit equivalent words at pages 16, 17 are but a vocabulary teaching Sanskrit words, and that the *Kārikās* at pages 17-20, the *Gaṇas* and *Anubandhas* of roots at page 20, the *Paḍas* of roots at page 21, and such other features, go entirely against the hasty theory of Mr. Dhruva, and support my contention about the nature of the work.

The only part of the work which would lend plausible support to Mr. Dhruva’s theory is the chapter on उक्ति (Voices) at pages 6, 7. पाषी (Straight, Direct) and वांकडी (Crooked, Indirect) Voices are names unknown to Sanskrit Grammar. The author also refrains from giving the corresponding Sanskrit names for the several Voices, कर्ता कर्मि भावि. कर्मकर्ता उक्ति is quite a novel division. And immediately after that, the author gives some forms peculiar to Prākṛit. These facts might for a moment lead one to suppose this work to be a Prākṛit treatise, and not one on Sanskrit Grammar. But against this single short chapter are to be put all the other parts of the book which, as shewn above, clearly

indicate the work to be a Sanskrit Grammar. The probable explanation of this chapter may be that the author took the liberty of allotting a separate chapter to the Voices, which is not done in Sanskrit Grammars, and, therefore, he did not give Sanskrit names at all for the divisions of the *Uktis*; and, having for once spoken in this manner, he incidentally, by way of a note as it were, gave some peculiarities of the Prākṛit language. This view is strengthened by the fact that in giving these peculiarities the author expressly uses the words प्राकृतवार्ता, "in the Prākṛit language," which he would not have done were this not an exceptional case in a work which, for the rest, is a Sanskrit Grammar. Further support is to be found in the fact that the author states in this very chapter that in the कर्तरि उक्ति verbs take the *Parasmaipada* terminations ordinarily (प्राहि, i. e. प्रायः), from which it is to be implied that *Ātmanēpadi* roots will take *Ātmanēpada* terminations; and also in the fact that the author states that in the कर्मणि and भावे *Uktis* the verbs take *Ātmanēpada* terminations, — a feature confined to Sanskrit, for in Prākṛit there is no such thing as *Ātmanēpada*, verbs taking *Parasmaipada* terminations even in the कर्मणि and भावे forms. This is a very strong point, and we must conclude that this chapter, although giving the original divisions and names of the *Uktis*, has after all for its main subject-matter the rules of Sanskrit Grammar and nothing else, and is, therefore, in general harmony with the other portions of the work.

I have now surveyed the whole scope of the book, and shewn how and where Mr. Dhruva has allowed himself to run into error. It is clear this has been the result of, among other causes, an undue haste, which is unaccountable and surprising. Mr. Dhruva has not had the patience to wait till he could secure more than one Manuscript for his work. The collation of Manuscripts is out of question in that case. Mr. Dhruva himself speaks of another copy in the Jain Bhāṇḍār at Ahmedabad, which he did not succeed in securing. But he can have had only his own impatience to thank for this. What hurry was there? What reason was there for him to rush this work through the Press before he returned from the International Congress of Orientalists, to which he had proceeded as a delegate of H. H. the Gaikwar? Could he not have waited till he had returned and had had time enough amidst "the arduous and multifarious work of an

office" he "now occupies" to examine the work with care, diligence, and patience? He could then have secured several Manuscripts and have collated them; — a course the propriety of which ought to have suggested itself, for, although he speaks at one place of the Manuscript he secured as "correct throughout with rare exceptions," he himself at another place⁴ complains of the mislections in which some parts of the work abound.

It is to be hoped that, when Mr. Dhruva brings out the second edition of the work which he has promised at the end of his Preface, he will exercise greater care, eliminate all errors, minor and fundamental, give up his untenable theory, and present the work in a creditable form. Till then, his publication can hardly succeed in commanding any perceptible circulation or patronage.

NARSINGRAO BH. DIVATIA.

Bijapur District, 10th May 1891.

P.S. — I subjoin a few additional points for consideration by Mr. Dhruva when he takes the second edition in hand:—

(1) At page 5, col. 1, l. 2, the word उत्तर seems to be misplaced for पूर्व. The Gujarāt Vernacular Society Manuscript also has उत्तर. But it conflicts with the sense. Hence the difficulty. For तुम् is applied in a sentence to the preceding, and not to the succeeding verb. कुम्भकारः घटं घटयितुं मुक्तिकां आनयति; in this instance, given by the author, घटयितुं is a verb precedent to आनयति. Mr. Dhruva will see the necessity here of collating several Manuscripts.

(2) Page 12, col. 1. Among the instances of बहुव्रीहिसमास the author gives आरूढो वानरो यः स आरूढवानरो वृक्षः. This is a curious and evidently ungrammatical instance of dissolving a Bahuvrīhi. यच्च for यः would have been correct. But the author seems to give instances of बहुव्रीहि in all the inflections, even including the nominative (which is surely ungrammatical). This requires careful consideration.

(3) In the chapter on उक्तिभेद (Voices), कर्मकर्ता उक्ति is a puzzling and peculiar division. अयं ग्रंथः सुखेन पठ्यते; here, merely because the object, ग्रंथः, is in the nominative case and the subject (कर्ता, the doer of पठ्) is not intended to be expressed, how does the nature of the कर्मणि form disappear? This requires more light.

N. BH. D.

* See Preface, p. vi. col. 2, para. 1.

⁴ See footnote at page 20. — Mr. Dhruva should know, or will perhaps recognise now, that a single

Manuscript cannot be safely rushed through the Press, even if he could rightly call a single Manuscript "MSS.," as he too often amusingly does.

THREE FURTHER PATTAVALIS OF THE DIGAMBARAS.

BY PROFESSOR A. F. RUDOLF HOERNLE.

SOME months ago (see *ante*, Vol. XX. page 341 ff.) I published two pattāvalis of the Digambaras, which were kindly made over to me by Mr. Cecil Bendall for publication. I now publish three more pattāvalis of the same Jain section, which I owe to the kindness of Pandit Hari Dās Shāstrī, who has now been for several years in Jaipur as Director of Public Instruction in that Principality. The originals of these three pattāvalis I have been obliged to return to their owners. My account of them is prepared from copies which I got made for me. For reasons of convenience I shall designate them by the letters C, D, E; while the two pattāvalis published previously I shall refer to as A and B, and Peterson's pattāvali as P.

The main interest of these new pattāvalis is that they seem clearly to show that there exist two distinct traditions as to the exact course of pontifical succession, differing not inconsiderably from one another. It is true that the pattāvali E is so slovenly written as to raise one's suspicions as to its trustworthiness. Thus, in the introduction (see below), among the Ten-Pūrvins, Prōṣṭhila is omitted; but that this is a mere clerical error is shown by the total number 9, at the end of the 3rd paragraph. Again in the Vāmsavalī proper (see below) three names are omitted between Yasahkīrti and Guṇanandin; *viz.*, No. 9 Yaśōnandin, No. 10 Dévanandin, No. 11 Jayanandin. Here, too, the fact of its being a mere clerical error is shown by the remark¹ after the entry of Śāntikīrti (No. 21 of the MS., but really No. 25), that till then there had been 26 pontiffs, thus clearly counting the omitted numbers. But these and other similar marks of error are not sufficient to account for the remarkable difference of pontifical succession, disclosed in the introductory portion of E as compared with A and C.

The first point of difference is, that while both traditions agree in making the length of the introductory period to be 683 years (after Vira), they entirely disagree as to the sub-divisions of that period and the number and identity of the persons composing them. There is no disagreement with respect to the two first sub-divisions; both give the same 3 Kēvalins for 62 years and the same 5 Śrutakēvalins for 100 years. But while A and E enumerate 11 Ten-Pūrvins for 183 years, E allows only 9 Ten-Pūrvins, also for 183 years. The names are the same, but E closes the Śrutakēvalins with the ninth on the list of A and C, Buddhilinga, whom it calls Bahudhūli; and it transfers the tenth and eleventh of the list of A and C, to the next sub-division of Eleven-Angins. In the latter sub-division A and C enumerate 5 members with a total of 123 years, while E has in it 6 members with a total of 220 years. The list of names also differs greatly. Further A and C have a sub-division of 4 Minor-Angins for 97 years, and another of 5 One-Angins for 118 years; but E allows no Minor-Angins at all, and has only one sub-division of 6 One-Angins for 118 years. The list of names again differs entirely: in fact, the Minor-Angins of A and C are identical with the One-Angins of E, with the addition of one new name, quite unknown to A and C. On the other hand, all the names of the One-Angins of A and C are unknown to E. The subjoined table will best exhibit these differences.

<i>Tradition in A and C.</i>			<i>Tradition in E.</i>	
62 years, 3 Kēvalins	{	1 Gôtama	1	} 3 Kēvalins for 62 years.
		2 Sudharman	2	
		3 Jambū	3	
100 years, 5 Śrutakēvalin.	{	1 Viṣṇunandin	1	} 5 Śrutakēvalins, 100 years.
		2 Nandimitra	2	
		3 Aparājita	3	
		4 Gōvardhana	4	
		5 Bhadrabhāhu I.	5	

¹ There is here another piece of slovenliness. The remark is misplaced; it should really come after No. 26 (or No. 22 of the MS.) Mērukīrti.

Tradition in A and C			Tradition in E.				
183 years, 11 Ten-Pûrvins	{	1 Viśākha	1	{	9 Ten-Pûrvins, 183 years.		
		2 Prôsthîla	2				
		3 Kshatriya	3				
		4 Jayasêna	4				
		5 Nâgasêna	5				
		6 Siddhârtha	6				
		7 Dhritisêna	7				
		8 Vijayasêna	8				
↓							
		9 Buddhilinga = Bahudhûli	9	{			
		10 Dêva = Gaṅgâdêva	1				
↓							
123 years	{	5 Eleven-Angins	11 Dharmasêna	2	{	6 Eleven-Angins, 220 years.	
		220	{	1 Nakshatra			3
				2 Jayapâla			4
				3 Pâṇḍava			5
				4 Dhruvasêna			6
		5 Kârṣa	1				
97 years	{	4 Minor-Angins	1 Subhadra	2	{	6 One-Angins, 118 years.	
			2 Yasôbhadra	3			
			3 Bhadrabâhu II.	4			
			4 Lôhachârya	5			
↓							
118 years, 5 One-Angins	{	Vinayadhara		6	{		
		1 Arhadbalin					
		2 Mâghanandin					
		3 Dharasêna					
		4 Pushpadanta					
		5 Bhûtavali					
↓							
683 years.							
Total 683 years.							

683 years.

Total 683 years.

The new name is Vinayadhara, the last of the One-Angins according to E, which makes the initial period of 683 years to close with him. A and C know him not; on the other hand, E knows nothing of the five last names of the list of A and C.

But there is still another point of difference. Both traditions agree in making the pañāvālī proper commence with a Bhadrabâhu. Who is this Bhadrabâhu? From the dates assigned to him by A and C it is quite clear that, for them, he is identical with Bhadrabâhu II., who is mentioned as one of the Minor-Angins (or as one of the One-Angins in E) in the introduction and as having ascended the pontifical chair in 492 (or 490) A. V. and 4 Saṃvat. In E, however, he is said to have ascended the chair exactly 100 years later, *i. e.*, in 104 Saṃvat. Three distinct names, *vis.*, Śrī-Dattasêna, Sivadatta and Aradatta, are interposed between him and Vinayadhara, the last of the One-Angins, and he is expressly enumerated as the 30th from Mahāvîra (counting the latter as the first of the series), while Bhadrabâhu, the One-Angin, is placed as the 25th. Undoubtedly their numbers are wrong; the MS. is very carelessly written: they should be the 27th and 33rd respectively; but anyhow they must occupy different places. It is clear, therefore, that in E there are three Bhadrabâhus, and that in it Bhadrabâhu III. is the beginner of the pañāvālī proper. I may here add, that the difference of 100 years is carried on in pañāvālī E down to its No. 7, Yasakîrtti. With its No. 8, Guṇananda, that difference has disappeared. But between its Nos. 7 and 8, three names are wanting, which (as I have already

pointed out) should really be in it, for they are counted later on among the 26 pontiffs, who resided in Mālwā (see No. 25, or its own No 21). Now it is a pity that these three names should be missing; for they would show how that difference of 100 years was recovered. One cannot help suspecting, that there must have been some design in the omission; the object may have been to evade the difficulty of making up the difference.

I believe the difference, in this particular point, between the two traditions may be accounted for. It will be noticed, that if the beginner of the paṭṭāvalī proper of the Sārasvatī Gachchha is, as A and C will have it, Bhadrabāhu II., that Gachchha is only a branch of the main-line that began with Mahāvira. The main-line runs on for, at least, 6 further members, through Lōhachārya, Ahivallī, Māghanandin, Dharasēna, Pushpadanta to Bhūtavali, with whom it appears (according to the representation of A and C) to have become extinct. Now it is quite possible to identify Ahivallī with Arhadbalin or Guptigupta of No. 2 of the paṭṭāvalī, and Māghanandin with Māghanandin of No. 3 of the paṭṭāvalī; and we may assume that Bhadrabāhu II. was first succeeded by his disciple Lōhachārya, and afterwards by his other disciple Ahivallī. Guptigupta (Arhadbalin), who in his turn was succeeded by Māghanandin. But this supposition does not remove the difficulty; for Māghanandin, the One-Angin, was succeeded by Dharasēna in the main-line; while Māghanandin, No. 3 of the paṭṭāvalī, was succeeded by Jinachandra in the paṭṭāvalī. The difficulty still remains, that the Sārasvatī Gachchha, after all, is only a side-branch of the main-line, which became extinct with Bhūtavali. This difficulty, it seems to me, cannot help having been felt as derogatory to the dignity and claims of the Digambaras; and the object of the tradition, represented in E, appears to have been to meet the difficulty. By that tradition the main-line is carried on from Bhadrabāhu II., through Lōhachārya, Vinayadhara, Śrīdatta, Sivadatta and Aradatta (the last four taking the place of the five One-Angins of A and C) to Bhadrabāhu III., who then founds the Sārasvatī Gachchha. The latter is thus shown to be the direct continuation of the main-line.²

And yet, in all probability, the tradition preserved in A and C is the genuine one, that the Sārasvatī Gachchha, as well as the three other Gachchhas of the Digambaras, are merely side-branches of the main-line. There is a curious short notice in paṭṭāvalī E, which quite undesignedly supports this view. After noticing Bhadrabāhu, the founder of the Gachchha, E adds that "from him the Śvētāmbaras separated and initiated a paṭṭāvalī of their own." This shows, at all events, that according to E, the Digambaras and Śvētāmbaras separated from the time of Bhadrabāhu. Now, if it appeared that the Digambaras were not the main-line but a branch, the presumption would naturally be that it was they who were the schismatics or heretics. Hence the necessity to show that they were the main-line, and therefore that the Śvētāmbaras were a branch and schismatics. Hence the fiction of a Bhadrabāhu III. But if the tradition of A and C is the genuine one, and the Sārasvatī Gachchha, i. e., the Digambaras, was founded by Bhadrabāhu II., and if, as tradition E says, the Śvētāmbaras separated in his time, it follows that the Śvētāmbaras were the main-line, while the Digambaras were the branch or seceders. It follows further that that famous separation took place between 490 and 513 A. V. (or 61 and 38 B. C., adjusted, see *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 360), the period of Bhadrabāhu's pontificate.

And this leads on to another point. All paṭṭāvalīs agree in representing Māghanandin as the actual founder of the Sārasvatī Gachchha, whence it is also called the Āmnāya, or Line of Nandin. At the same time they also all agree in making the paṭṭāvalī proper of the Gachchha to begin with Bhadrabāhu, two steps before Māghanandin. This, it appears to me, can have but one meaning: before Bhadrabāhu the Jain community was undivided; with him the Digambaras separated from the Śvētāmbaras, but remained united themselves; with Māghanandin the Digambaras themselves separated into four divisions, the most important

² I may here note, that Guptigupta, the successor of Bhadrabāhu III and No. 2 of the paṭṭāvalī, is not really omitted in E, for he is counted among the 26 pontiffs, who resided in Mālwā. His omission, in his proper place, is only another of the many errors of the MS.

of which would seem to have been that named after Māghanandin. This view is distinctly borne out by that curious notice in E, that the Śvētāmbaras separated from the time of Bhadrabāhu. It is also indirectly borne out by the notice of paṭṭāvalī C (in §16, see below), that "the Sitapaṭa or white-robed Sangha arose from the Mūlasangha." For whether the Mūlasangha be taken to mean the undivided Jains or only the undivided Digambaras, in any case the notice refers the origin of the Śvētāmbaras to a time prior to the Digambara division under Māghanandin.

Now, it is well-known that the Digambaras place the great separation of themselves and the Śvētāmbaras in Saṃ. 136 (or A. D. 79).³ This tradition of theirs is not borne out by their own paṭṭāvalīs, as represented in A, B, C, D. For they place Bhadrabāhu in Saṃ. 4 (or B. C. 53), and even Māghanandin is placed in Saṃ. 36 (or B. C. 21).⁴ Therefore one of two things: either the tradition about the separation in Saṃ. 136 is false, or the separation took place long after Māghanandin. In the latter case, the Śvētāmbaras separated not from the Mūlasangha (or the undivided Digambaras), but only from one of its subdivisional Gachchhas. This latter case is negatived, as already pointed out, by the statements of the paṭṭāvalīs themselves. It follows that the paṭṭāvalīs, such as A, B, C, D, contradict the tradition of the great separation in Saṃ. 136. Now, it seems to me, that the object of paṭṭāvalī E is to harmonise the two traditions: that the great separation took place under Bhadrabāhu, or at least under Māghanandin, and that it took place in Saṃ. 136. It was apparently thought that this could be done most easily by simply adding one hundred years to Māghanandin's usual traditional date. According to A, B, C, D he succeeded in Saṃ. 36; paṭṭāvalī E turns the year into Saṃ. 136. It is a clumsy expedient; for, in the first place, it necessitated other changes and even interpolations to account for the additional century: hence the fiction of a Bhadrabāhu III. In the second place, it was only a half-measure; for it placed the great separation under Māghanandin, whereas the paṭṭāvalīs really required it to be placed under Bhadrabāhu II. But to have altered the latter's date from Saṃ. 4 to Saṃ. 136 would seem to have been considered too violent a measure.

We have undoubtedly here two contradictory traditions of the Digambaras disclosed to us; that of their paṭṭāvalīs places the great separation considerably earlier than Saṃ. 136, in the time of Bhadrabāhu. The question is who this Bhadrabāhu was. The Śvētāmbaras paṭṭāvalīs know only one Bhadrabāhu, who, from the dates assigned to him by the Śvētāmbaras and Digambaras alike, must be identical with the Bhadrabāhu I. of the Digambaras. Considering the varying and contradictory character of the Digambara traditions, the probability is that the inception of the great separation took place under Bhadrabāhu I, who died 162 A. V. according to the Digambaras, or 170 A. V. according to the Śvētāmbaras. The final and definite schism may then have occurred later in Saṃ. 136 or, according to the Śvētāmbaras, Saṃ. 139.

Further, there is another divergence of tradition disclosed in the five paṭṭāvalīs, now published. This refers not to the succession so much as to the residences or migrations of the pontiffs, and, therefore, of the Digambara sect. On this point, the paṭṭāvalīs A, B, D altogether agree; paṭṭāvalī E also agrees in the main; but paṭṭāvalī C presents a considerably different tradition. This may be seen at a glance from the subjoined table. One point of general agreement comes out clearly and is noteworthy, namely, the general direction of the Digambara migration. It was from the South to the North, from Bhadrapur to Dillī and Jaipur. This agrees with the opinion that the Digambara separation originally took place as a result of the migration southwards under Bhadrabāhu in consequence of a severe famine in Bihār, the original home of the undivided Jaina community.⁵ I have not been a

³ The Śvētāmbaras place it three years later, in 82 A. D. See my edition of the *Uvāsagadasāo* (Bibliotheca Indica) Vol. II. p. IX.

⁴ Or with the adjustment of 8 years (see *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 360), 61 B. C. and 44 B. C. respectively.

⁵ See Introduction to my edition of the *Uvāsagadasāo* (Bibl. Ind.), Vol. II. p. viii.

to identify Bhaddalpur. It is variously spelt. E spells it with the cerebral *d* (भाडलपुर), but the others with the dental *d*, either single (भदलपुर) or double (भदलपुरी). C places it in Southern India (Dakṣiṇa), but the others in Central India (Mālava).

Table of Pontifical Residences.

Period.	Pattāvalis A, B, D.	Pattāvali E.	Pattāvali C.
I	Bhaddalpur (in Mālava) 26 pont., Nos. 1-26	Bhāḍalpur (in Mālava) 26 pont., No. 1-26	Bhaddalpurī (in Dakṣiṇa) 26 pont.; No. 1-26
II	Ujjain 25 pont., Nos. 27-51	II and III. Vārā (Vāḍōdā) 37 pont., Nos. 27-63	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg); font-size: small; margin-right: 5px;"> II Mālava 26 pont., Nos. 27-52. </div> <div> Ujjainī 18 p., Nos. 27-44 Chandêrī 4 p., Nos. 45-48 Bhêl 3 p., Nos. 49-51 Kuṇḍalpur 1 pont., Nos. 52 </div> </div>
III	Vārā (or Vārô) 12 pont., Nos. 52-63		Vārā. 12 pont., Nos. 53-64
IV	Gvālêr 14 pont., Nos. 64-77	Gvālêr 15 pont., Nos. 64-78	IVa Chîṭōr 10 pont., Nos. 65-74 IVb Vāghêr 4 pont., Nos. 75-78.
V	Ajmêr 6 pont., Nos. 78-83	Ajmêr 5 pont., Nos. 79-83	Ajmêr ⁶ 5 pont., Nos. 79-83
VI	Dillī 3 pont., Nos. 84-86		Vāgvar (in Gujarāt) 3 pont., Nos. 84-86
VII	Chîṭōr, No. 87	Chîṭōr, No. 89	
VIII	(D) Smêrskir (?), No. 90.		
IX	(D) Châṭasâ, No. 91	Sâgânêr No. 91	
X	a (D) Sâgânêr, No. 92 b (D) Avêr 3 pont., Nos. 93-95	Avairi 4 pont., Nos. 92-95	
XI	(D) Dillī, No. 96	Dillī, No. 96	
XII	(D) Jaipur 4 pont., Nos. 97-100	Jaipur 4 pont., Nos. 97-100	

⁶ MS. C reads 6 pont., but gives only 5 names.

There is still a third point of interest in the three new paṭṭāvalis, now published. They shew that the Digambara tradition of the pontifical succession exists in two different recensions. The two recensions differ, in the main, in a certain number of names and dates. From this point of view the whole of the paṭṭāvalis, hitherto published, distribute themselves thus: A, B, D represent one recension (I) and C, E, P represent the other (II). The following two tables exhibit the differences:—

1. Table of Differences in Names.

Serial Number.	I. Recension A, B, D.	II. Recension C, E, P.
11	Pūjyapāda.....	Jayanandin.
19	Harinandin	Simhanandin (E, P). Nayanandin (C).
22	Ratnakirtti	Ratnanandin.
23	Māpikanandin (also E) ...	Māpikyanandin (C, P).
30	Śrichandra (also C).....	Śilachandra (E, P).
31	Nandikirtti	Śrinandin.
35	Virachandra	Vidyānandin.
46	Gūṇanandin	Gūṇakirtti.
53	Vṛishabhanandin	Brahmanandin.
54	Śivanandin	Dēvanandin (C, E).
55	Vasuchandra	Viśvachandra (C, P). Siyachandra (P E).
56	Sishanandin (B, D)..... Saṅghanandin (A)	Harinandin.
62	Jñānakirtti	Jñānanandin (C, P). Guṇāyananandin (P E).
66	Sundarakirtti	Chārunandin.
67	Nēmichandra	Nēminandin.
72	Varaddhachandra	Vardhamāna.
80	Sāntikirtti.....	Viśālakirtti.

As the full particulars of the dates are given only in the paṭṭāvalis A, D and E, the second table will stand thus:—

2. Table of Differences in Dates.

Serial Number.	I. Recension A, D.				II. Recension C.			
5	pontificate	51-10-10,	total	95-10-15	pontificate	41-10-10,	total	85-10-15
20	"	6- 2-22,	"	46- 3- 1	"	6- 7-22,	"	46- 8- 1
25	intercalary	20,	"	32- 1-15	intercalary	25,	"	32- 1-20
26	pontificate	44- 3-16,	"	63- 3-29	pontificate	44- 3-13,	"	63- 3-26
27	monkhood	12- 0- 0,	"	35-11-20	monkhood	22- 0- 0,	"	45- 0- 0
28	intercalary	15,	"	42- 4-15	intercalary	31,	"	42- 5- 1
33	"	5,	"	43-10- 0	"	10,	"	43-10- 5
35	"	8,	"	70- 0-12	"	4,	"	70- 0- 8
41	householder	8- 0- 0,	"	26- 9-20	householder	9- 0- 0,	"	27- 9-20
42	intercalary	8,	"	49- 1-16	intercalary	9,	"	49- 1-17
43	pontificate	16- 6- 0,	"	41- 5- 6	pontificate	16- 0- 0,	"	40-11- 5

Serial Number.	I. Recension A, D.				II. Recension C.			
45	householder	11- 0- 0,	Total	50- 4-14	householder	21- 0- 0,	Total	60- 4-14
50	monkhood	25- 0- 0,	"	58- 0- 0	monkhood	15- 0- 0,	"	48- 0- 0
53	pontificate	3- 4- 1,	"	47- 4- 5	pontificate	2- 4- 1,	"	46- 4- 5
54	householder	39- 0- 0, etc.	"	55- 7- 1	householder	7- 0- 0,	"	23- 6-24
55	monkhood	40- 0- 0,	"	51- 8- 1	monkhood	24- 0- 0,	"	35- 8- 1
59	pontificate	5- 5- 5, etc.	"	57- 5- 9	pontificate	5- 4-29, etc.	"	49- 5- 9
60	householder	10- 0- 0,	"	53- 2- 1	householder	14- 0- 0,	"	57- 2- 1
61	pontificate	4- 1-16, etc.	"	50- 6-21	pontificate	4- 1- 0, etc.	"	34- 8- 7
64	monkhood	37- 0- 0,	"	47- 3- 1	monkhood	27- 0- 0,	"	37- 3- 1
67	intercalary	9,	"	35- 9- 8	intercalary	7,	"	35- 9- 6
70	monkhood	25- 0- 0,	"	38- 4- 1	monkhood	22- 0- 0,	"	35- 4- 1
72	pontificate	2-11-28,	"	26- 0- 1	pontificate	2-11- 8,	"	25-11-21
75	intercalary	6,	"	45- 6-21	intercalary	5,	"	45- 6-20
76	householder	13- 0- 0,	"	47- 3- 9	householder	12- 0- 0,	"	46- 3- 9
78	monkhood	20- 0- 0,	"	33- 5- 0	monkhood	2- 0- 0,	"	15- 5- 0
79	pontificate	2-13-19,	"	28- 3-23	pontificate	2- 3-16,	"	28- 3-20
85	monkhood	24- 0- 0,	"	96- 3-15	monkhood	14- 0- 0,	"	86- 3-15

To the above tables I may add that both P and E insert an additional name between Nos. 47 and 48; *viz.*, Vāsavachandra (E) or Vāsavēndu (P). In this point C agrees with the other recension (of A, B, D), which omits that name. Further E omits No. 79 Prakshāntikīrtti (or as B, D have it Prakshātakīrtti), so that its total number of pontiffs is the same as that in the other lists. This pontiff is also omitted in P, for the "prakhyātakīrtti" of the latter is not a name, but a title of No. 78, Vasantakīrtti. In this point, too, C agrees with A, B, D. Though I suspect that E, P are correct, as against A, B, C, D, I am unable to account for the divergence. There is a similar discrepancy between the paṭṭāvalī C and all others (see below) with respect to the successor of No. 85, Subhachandra.

One further point I may note. Paṭṭāvalī A is the only one which gives what I have called the Nāgôr section. All others, B, D, E, P, give the Chitôr section. The two sections separated after No. 87. Paṭṭāvalī C only goes down to No. 85 (or rather No. 86), and stops short just before the schism. From the remark in paṭṭāvalī D (see below), referring to this schism, it would seem that the two sections took up their residences in Gwāler and Nāgôr respectively. But paṭṭāvalī E mentions No. 89, Lalitakīrtti, as still resident in Chitôr, and with this the passage on the schism in paṭṭāvalī A agrees. See the passages which are quoted below. This matter of the schism still requires further clearing up.⁷

I now proceed to describe the three paṭṭāvalīs separately.

PATṬĀVALĪ C.

This paṭṭāvalī is drawn up on the plan of paṭṭāvalī A, *i.e.* it begins with an introduction detailing the antecedent history of the Gachchha, after which it gives the list of pontiffs, with all the dates of each life in addition to the year of accession. A peculiar feature are the concluding remarks after the introduction (see below §§ 16-19) as well as after the paṭṭāvalī proper (§§ 23-26), which give some curious information regarding the three other orthodox Sanghas, *viz.*, the Dēva, Simha and Sēna, as well as regarding some (apparently five) heretical or

⁷ In his *Jainamata Vriksha*, or Genealogical Table of the Jains, Munī Ātmārāmji makes the following remark: 'In Sam. 1572 Rūpa Chand Sōrānā, of his own accord, put on the monk's garb and originated the Nāgōrī Lumpaka sect.' This appears to refer to the above-mentioned schism, though the name of the founder differs.

schismatic Sanghas, viz., the Sitapaṭṭa or Svetāmbara, the Kāśthha, the Drāviḍa, the Yāpuliya or Yapaniya, and the Kēkīpichchha or Nīḷpichchha. Paragraphs 16 and 17 appear to me a little confused; it is not clear whether the same or different sects are spoken of; the names are so similar, that the former seems the more probable view.

Another peculiarity of paṭṭāvalī C are the numerous extracts it quotes in support of its statements. Some of them are identical with those quoted also in paṭṭāvalī A, and these, it now appears, are quoted from the *Vikrama Prabandha*, a work which I see is mentioned in the Deccan College collection, No. 172.⁸ The other extracts are taken from the *Nītisāra*, a work ascribed to Indranandin, a copy of which (No. 371) also exists in the Deccan College collection (see its *Catalogue*, p. 145). To judge from the name of its author, he should be a member of the Śārasvatī Gachchha, to which the surname Nandin is peculiar; but it does not occur, at least, among the names of the pontiffs.

In the Gāthās, giving the dates of Vikrama's life (see below § 15), there again occurs the puzzling word *rasapaṇa*. In my previous paper (see *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 360) I have suggested that it should be read *pañarasa*, 'fifteen.' From the comment on the gāthā in paṭṭāvalī C, however, it is clear that the reading *rasapaṇa* is, at least, so far genuine that it already existed for the writer of the paṭṭāvalī. For he interprets it as meaning "fifty-six." He, evidently, must have taken it as a compound of the two nouns *rasa* and *paṇa*. The former, *rasa*, is the well-known symbolical expression for 6, while the latter would seem to be a name for 5, though I am not aware of the fact. According to the usual rule of interpreting such symbolic names inversely, the word *rasapaṇa* would mean 56. It is also to be noted that in paṭṭāvalī C the line, in which *rasapaṇa* occurs, reads *rajjam kuṇanti* "he reigned," instead of the *jajjam kuṇanti* "he performed sacrifices" of paṭṭāvalī A. If the periods are taken to be consecutive — as one would naturally do —, the verses, as interpreted in paṭṭāvalī C, would give king Vikrama a life of 118 years (i. e., 6 + 16 + 56 + 40)! But possibly 56 years are understood to be the total period of his reign, during the latter portion of which, comprising 40 years, Vikrama was a Jain. If so, there would be a curious coincidence in the fact, that the suggested reading *pañarasa* 'fifteen' would give him a reign of 55 years (i. e., 15 + 40). The line in question would then have to be translated: "for 56 years he carried on his rule being at first attached to heretical doctrines." Here, however, the most significant words "at first" would have to be supplied, not being expressed in any way by the verse itself.

I may also note, that instead of the terms *viraha* or *antara*, paṭṭāvalī C occasionally uses the synonymous term *antarālā*; see, e. g., No. 62.

The list of pontiffs in this paṭṭāvalī closes with Subhachandra, who reigned up to Sam. 150, or A.D. 1440, some time before the separation into the Chītōr and Nāgōr lines took place. In the concluding remarks of the paṭṭāvalī (see § 23) it is stated that Subhachandra was followed by Sakalakīrtti, and from the form of the remark it would seem that he must have been the reigning pontiff, at the time the paṭṭāvalī was written. This would give it a date somewhere about 1450 A. D., and would make it the oldest at present known; the next oldest being the paṭṭāvalī P, the date of which must be about 1650 A.D., as it comes down to the pontiff Nārēndrakīrtti (of the Chītōr line, see *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 355). There is a difficulty, however, in the names. Instead of Sakalakīrtti, all the other paṭṭāvalīs (A, B, D, E) give either Jīnachandra or Prabhāchandra as the successor of Subhachandra. Moreover paṭṭāvalī C gives Vāgvar in Gujarāt as the residence of Sakalakīrtti as well as of Padmanandin and Subhachandra, while the other paṭṭāvalīs (A, B, D, E) give Dillī as the residence of the two last mentioned pontiffs, as well as of Subhachandra's successor (see the list above). I am unable to clear up this difficulty; but it may be noted that there are in paṭṭāvalī C itself indications that a pontiff may have borne two quite distinct names. In the same § 23, there is mentioned a pontiff Nārēn-

⁸ *Catalogue of the Collections of Manuscripts deposited in the Deccan College*, by Prof. Bhandarkar, p. 50, (Bombay 1888).

drakīrtti, who, from the connection in which his name appears, must have been the immediate successor of Jñānakīrtti, Māghachandra and Sūrachandra (i. e., Nos. 60, 61, 62). Accordingly he must be No. 63, who in the nominal list of C, no less than in all others, is known as Gaṅgākīrtti. Similarly, we have in § 23 a Kanakakīrtti and a Prōshṭhīlakīrtti, who would clearly seem to be identical with Nos. 65 Hēmakīrtti and No. 79 Prakshāntikīrtti. There is, however, another difficulty in the account given in § 23, which I am unable to solve. That account of the pontifical succession does not agree with the paṭṭāvalī which precedes it. The four pontiffs Sūrachandra, Māghachandra, Jñānakīrtti, and Narēndrakīrtti are made to follow Vasantakīrtti, whereas in the paṭṭāvalī they preceded him by a long interval. Again in § 23 Vasantakīrtti is made to be the 9th after Kanakakīrtti, whereas in the paṭṭāvalī (if Kanaka is the same as Hēma, No. 65) he is the 13th after him. The table of residences, however, should be compared.

The introductory and concluding portions I again give *in extenso*, but the paṭṭāvalī proper, as before, in abstract tabular form. The bracketed remarks in the last column of the tables are again my own.

TEXT.

Introduction of Paṭṭāvalī C.

(1) ओं नमः सिद्धेभ्यः ॥ अवार पञ्चमा काल विषै श्रीमहावीर स्वामी के मुक्ति हुए पीछे वा की हीनता काल-दोष तै भई है ॥ जा तै या के पार गिणती के आचार्य भए है, सो अनुक्रम सै प्रसङ्ग करि किञ्चित् वर्णन करिये है।

(2) अन्त के तीर्थङ्कर महावीर स्वामी कूँ मुक्ति भए पीछे बासठि ६२ वर्ष तौई केवलज्ञान रह्या, सो कहिये है ॥ जब श्रीवर्द्धमान स्वामी कूँ मुक्ति भई, तिस पीछे श्रीगौतम गणधर कूँ केवलज्ञान उपज्या। सो बारह वर्ष १२ पर्यन्त रह्या ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे सुधर्म स्वामी कूँ केवलज्ञान उपज्या। सो भी बारह वर्ष तौई केवल रह्या ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे जम्बू स्वामी कूँ केवलज्ञान उत्पन्न भया। सो वर्ष ३८ अडतीस् तौई रह्या ॥ ऐसै बासठि वर्ष तौई केवल-ज्ञानी तीन पञ्चम काल विषै प्रवर्त्ता ॥

(3) बहुरि ता के पीछे ग्यारह अङ्ग चउदह पूर्व के धारक अनुक्रम सै पाँच श्रुतज्ञान के पाठी श्रुतकेवली हवा ॥ ता मै प्रथम विष्णुकुमार वर्ष १४ चउदह। बहुरि नन्दिनिच वर्ष १६ सोलह। बहुरि अपराजित वर्ष २१। बहुरि गोवर्द्धन वर्ष १९ उगणीस। बहुरि भद्रबाहू वर्ष २९ गुणतीस ॥ ऐसै १०० एक सौ वर्ष पर्यन्त या का काल अनुक्रम तै रह्या ॥ इहाँ तौई श्रीमहावीर स्वामी कूँ मुक्ति गये एक सो बासठि १६२ वर्ष जानना ॥

(4) बहुरि ता के पीछे ग्यारह अङ्ग दश पूर्व के धारक ग्यारह मुनि भया। ता को काल वर्ष १८३ एक सो तिरासी को अनुक्रम तै है। ता मै विशाखाचार्य वर्ष दश १०, प्रोष्ठिलाचार्य वर्ष १५ पन्द्रह, नक्षत्राचार्य वर्ष १७ सतरह, नागसेनाचार्य वर्ष १८ अठारह, जयसेनाचार्य वर्ष इकावीस २१, सिद्धार्थाचार्य वर्ष १७ सप्तदश, धृतिसेनाचार्य वर्ष १८, विजयाचार्य वर्ष तेरह १३, बुद्धिलिङ्गाचार्य वर्ष २०, देवाचार्य वर्ष १४ चउदह, धर्मसेनाचार्य वर्ष सोलह १६ ॥ ऐसै आँ का १ एक सो तियाँसी वर्ष का अनुक्रम तै काल का वर्त्तमान है ॥ इहाँ तौई श्रीमहावीर कूँ मुक्ति गये वर्ष ३४९ तीन सै पैतालीस भए जानना ॥

(5) बहुरि ता के पीछे ग्यारह अङ्ग के पाठी पाँच मुनि भए ॥ ता मै नक्षत्राचार्य तौ श्रीमहावीर तै तीन सै पैतालीस वर्ष पीछे हवा, वर्ष १८ अठारह तौई रह्या ॥ बहुरि महावीर तै तीन सै तरेसठि वर्ष पीछे जयपाल नाम आचार्य भया। तिन का वर्त्तमान काल वर्ष बीस २० का है ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे तथा श्रीमहावीर नाथ तै तीन सै तियाँसी वर्ष ३८३ पीछे पाण्डवाचार्य भया। ता का वर्त्तमान काल वर्ष गुणतालीस ३९ का रह्या ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे तथा श्रीवर्द्धमान तीर्थङ्कर तै ४२२ च्यार सै बाईस वर्ष पीछे ध्रुवसेनाचार्य हवा। ता का वर्त्तमान काल वर्ष चउदह का है ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे श्रीसन्मति पीछे ४३६ च्यार सै छतीस वर्ष गये कंसाचार्य भए। ता का वर्त्तमान वर्ष वर्त्तीस ३२ का है ॥ ऐसै पाँचू आचार्यनि का अनुक्रम सै वर्ष एक सौ तेईस १२३ जानना ॥ ए सर्व केवल एकादशाङ्गधारी है ॥

(6) बहुरि श्रीमहावीर स्वामी पीछे च्यार सौ अडसठि ४६८ वर्ष गये सुभद्राचार्य भए। ता का वर्त्तमान काल के वर्ष छह ६ ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे तथा श्रीमहावीर स्वामी पीछे च्यार सै चहौत्तर ४७४ वर्ष गये यशोभद्राचार्य भए। ता का वर्त्तमान काल के वर्ष १८ अठारह है ॥ बहुरि ता के पीछे तथा श्रीवीर नाथ कूँ मुक्ति हवा पीछे ४९२ च्यार सौ बाणवै वर्ष गये दूसरा भद्रबाहू नामा आचार्य भए। या का वर्त्तमान काल वर्ष २३ तेईस का है ॥ बहुरि ता के

पीछे" तथा वीर स्वामी पीछे" ५१५ पाँच सै पन्धरह वर्ष गये" लोहाचार्य भये"। ता का वर्त्तमान काल पचास वर्ष का है ॥ ऐसे च्याऊँ ही आचार्य का वर्ष सत्यानवै ९७ का है ॥ यह च्याऊँ ही आचार्य अनुक्रम सै" एक एक अङ्गन के घाटि पाठी हुये है"। वस-नव-आठ-सातमौ अङ्गन के पाठी तौई हुये ॥

(7) वहरि ता के पीछे" एक अङ्गन के पाठी पाँच मुनिवर होते भए ॥ ता का विस्तार ॥ श्रीवर्द्धमान स्वामी कूँ मुक्ति हुये पीछे" पाँच सै पैसठि ५६५ वर्ष गये" अर्हद्वलि आचार्य भए । ता का वर्त्तमान काल वर्ष २८ अष्टाविंशति का है ॥ वहरि ता के पीछे" तथा वीर जिनेश्वर पीछे" पाँच सै तिराणवै ५९३ वर्ष गए" माघनन्दि आचार्य भये । ता का वर्त्तमान वर्ष २९ इक्कीस का है ॥ वहरि ता के पीछे" तथा श्रीसनमति नाथ पीछे" छह सै चौदह ६१४ वर्ष गये" धरसेनाचार्य भये । ता का वर्त्तमान काल गुनीस वर्ष का है ॥ वहरि ता के पीछे" तथा श्रीवीर भगवान कूँ निर्वाण भये" पीछे" छह सै तेतीस ६३३ वर्ष भुक्ते पुष्पदन्ताचार्य भये । ता का वर्त्तमान काल वर्ष ३० तीस का भया ॥ वहरि ता के पीछे" तथा श्री-महावीर पीछे" छह सै तिरेसठि ६६३ गये" भूतवल्याचार्य भये । ता का वर्त्तमान काल २० बीस वर्ष का भया ॥ ऐसै" अनुक्रम सै" भये" ॥ वहरि श्रीमहावीर स्वामी कूँ मुक्ति गये" पीछे" छह सै तीयासी ६८३ वर्ष तौई पूर्व अङ्गन की परिपाठी चली । फिर अनुक्रम करि घटती रही ॥ और पूर्वोक्त अर्हद्वल्याचार्यादि पाँच आचार्य का वर्त्तमान काल एक सौ अठारह ११८ वर्ष का है ॥ इहाँ तौई एकाङ्गन के धारी मुनि भये है" ॥

(8) वहरि ता के पीछे" श्रुतज्ञानी मुनि भये । अङ्गन के पाठी नाँही भए । ऐसै आचार्यनि की परिपाठी है ॥

(9) तहुक्त गाथा ॥

अन्तिमजिणिव्वाणे केवलणाणी य गोयम मुणिन्ही ।
 वारह वासे गये सुधम्म सामी य संजासो ॥ १ ॥
 तह वारह वासे^९ य पुणु संजासो जम्बुसामि मुणिराओ ।
 अडतीस वास पठिओ केवलणाणी य उक्किहो ॥ २ ॥
 वासठि केवलवासो^{१०} तिण्ह मुणि गोयम सुधम्म जम्बू य ।
 वारह वारह वच्छर तिय जुगहीणं च चालीसं ॥ ३ ॥
 सुयकेवलि पञ्च जणा वासठि वासे गये सुसंजासा ।
 पढमं चउदह वासं विण्हकुवारं मुणेरव्वं ॥ ४ ॥
 नैसिमिन्त वास सोलह तय^{११} अपराजिय परं ह वावीसं ।
 इगहीणवीस वासं गोवद्धण भव्वाहु गुणतीसं ॥ ५ ॥
 सव^{१२} सुय केवलणाणी पञ्च जणा विण्ह नन्दिमिन्तो य ।
 अवराजिय गोवद्धण [य^{१३}] भव्वाहु य संजासा ॥ ६ ॥
^{१४}अन्तिमजिणिव्वाणे तयसय^{१५} पणचाल वास जाहे सु ।
 एकादहङ्गधारिय पण्ण जणा मुणिवरा जासा ॥ ७ ॥
 णक्खत्तो जयपालग पण्डव^{१६} धुवसेण कंस आयरिया ।
 अठार बीस वासं गुणचाल य चोद वत्तीसं ॥ ८ ॥
 सव तेवीस^{१७} य वासे एयावह अङ्गधारिणो जासा ।
 वासं सत्ताणवहि^{१८} य दसङ्ग-नव-अठधरा जासा ॥ ९ ॥

श्लोक प्राकृत ॥

सुभई च जसोभई भव्वाइ कामेण य ।
 लोहाचज्जं मुणीसं च कहियं च जिणागमे ॥ १० ॥
 छह अठारह वासे तेवीस बावण वरस मुणिणाहा ।
 दह-नव-अहङ्गधरा वास दुसव बीस मज्जेसु ॥ ११ ॥

^९ Read *vasē metri causā*.

^{१०} MS. °वासो ।

^{११} For तइअ । ^{१२} MS. सुद । ^{१३} Not in MS., but some such addition is required by the metre. ^{१४} Here three verses are omitted in the MS. ^{१५} MS. तह सय पण्णठि, which fits neither sense nor metre. ^{१६} MS. पांडव । ^{१७} MS. तीयासी = ३३. ^{१८} MS. संजासादि ।

पञ्च सये पण्णहे अन्तिमजिणसमय जाहे सु ।
 उप्पण्णा पञ्च जणा इयङ्गधारी मुण्येयवा ॥ १२ ॥
 अहवलिमाहणन्दि य धरसेण पुप्फयन्त भूदवली¹⁹ ।
 अडवीसं इगवीसं उगणीसं तीस वीस पुण वासा ॥ १३ ॥
 इगसय अठार वासे इगङ्गधारी य मुणिवरा जादा ।
 छ सय तिरासि य वासे णिव्वाणा अङ्गुलित्ति कहिय जिणे ॥ १४ ॥

ऐसै विक्रम प्रबन्ध विषै लिखा है ॥ यह पूर्वोक्त प्रकार श्रीमहावीर स्वामी तै लेय करि जिनमस विषै अनुक्रम सै आचार्यनि की परिपाठी है ॥

(10) वहरि श्रीवीर स्वामी कूँ मुक्ति गये पीछै च्यार सै सत्तर ४७० वर्ष गये पीछै श्रीमन्महाराज विक्रम राजा का जन्म भया ॥ वहरि पूर्वोक्त सुभद्राचार्य तै²⁰ विक्रम राजा को जन्म है ॥ वहरि विक्रम के राजपद मै वर्ष चत्वारि ४ पीछै पूर्वोक्त दूसरा भद्रवाह कूँ आचार्य का पद हवा ॥ वहरि भद्रवाह का सिष्य गुप्ति नाम । ता के नाम तीन । गुप्तगुप्ति १ अर्हद्वलि २ विशाखाचार्य ३ ॥ वहरि जा के च्यार ४ सिष्य । नन्दि नाम जाति के वृक्ष के अधोभाग कै विखै चातुर्मास का वर्षा योग धारया ऐसा माघनन्दि आचार्य जी नै नन्दिस्सङ्ग स्थापित कीया ॥ १ ॥ वहरि जा नै तृणतल विषै वर्षा योग स्थापित कीया, सो जिनसेन नाम सेनसङ्ग स्थापित कीया ॥ २ ॥ वहरि सिंह की गुफा विषै वर्षा योग धारया, जा तै सिंहसङ्ग स्थाप्या ॥ ३ ॥ वहरि जा नै देवदत्ता नामा वेदया के गृह के विषै वर्षा योग धारया, सो देवसङ्ग भया । ऐसै जिनमत मै पाँचवाँ काल विषै आचार्यनि के च्यार सङ्ग भए ॥

(11) वहरि पूर्वोक्त नन्दिस्सङ्ग के विषै नन्दिस्सङ्ग १, पारिजात गच्छ एक १, बलात्कारगण²¹, च्यार मुनि के नाम कहिये नन्दि १ चन्द्र २ कीर्त्ति ३ भूषण ४, ऐसै स्थापित भये ॥ तथा श्रीमूलसङ्ग १ नन्द्यान्नाय १ सरस्वती गच्छ १ बलात्कारगण १, ऐसै च्यार ४ । वहरि पूर्वोक्त नन्दि १ चन्द्र २ कीर्त्ति ३ भूषण ४, ऐसै च्यार मुनि के नाम स्थापे ॥

(12) तदुक्त श्रीइन्द्रनन्दि सिद्धान्तो कृत नीतिसारे ॥ श्लोक ॥

अर्हद्वलि गुरुश्वके सङ्गसङ्गहनं परं ॥ १ ॥

सिंहसङ्गो नन्दिस्सङ्गः सेनसङ्गो महाप्रभः ।

देवसङ्ग इति स्पष्टः स्थानस्थितिर्विशेषतः ॥ २ ॥

(13) वहरि श्रीमहावीर स्वामी पीछै ४९२ च्यारि सै वाणवै वर्ष गये सुभद्राचार्य का वर्तमान व २४ चौईस, सो विक्रम जन्म तै वावीस वर्ष ॥ वहरि ता का राज्य तै वर्ष ४ च्यार दुसरा भद्रवाह हवा जाननौ ॥

(14) वहरि श्रीमहावीर तै च्यार सै सत्तर ४७० वर्ष पीछै विक्रम राजा भयो । ता के पीछै आठ वर्ष पर्यन्त बाला-क्रीडा करि । ता के पीछै सोलह वर्ष ताँई देशान्तर विषै भ्रमण करि । ता के पीछै छप्पन ५६ वर्ष ताँई राज कीयो नानाप्रकार मिथ्यात्व के उपदेश करि संयुक्त रह्यो ॥ वहरि ता के पीछै चालीस वर्ष ताँई पूर्वमिथ्यात्व कूँ छोडि जिनवर धर्म कूँ पाल करि देवपदवी पाई ॥ ऐसै विक्रम राजा की उत्पत्ति आवि है ॥

(15) तदुक्त विक्रमप्रबन्धे । गाथा ॥

सत्तरि चतुस्रज्जुत्तो तिण काले विक्रमो हवइ जम्मो ।

अठ वरस बाललीला सोडस वासे हि भम्मिए देसे ॥ १ ॥

रसपण वासा रज्जं कुणन्ति मिच्छावदेससंजुत्तो ।

चालीस वास जिणवरधम्मं पाले य सुरपयं लहियं ॥ २ ॥

(16) ऐसै श्रीमूलसङ्ग कै विषै गण-गच्छ-सङ्ग-आदि नाना प्रकार की भई है ॥ तदुक्त नीतिसारे काव्य²² ॥

पूर्वै श्रीमूलसङ्गात्तदनु सितपटः काष्ठसङ्गस्ततो हि ।

तत्राभूद्वाविराख्यः पुनरजनि ततो यापुली सङ्ग एकः ॥

तस्मिन् श्रीमूलसङ्गे मुनिजनविमले सेन नन्दी च सङ्गौ ।

स्यातां सिंहाख्यसङ्गो ऽभवदुरुमहिमा देवसङ्गश्चतुर्थः ॥ १ ॥

¹⁹ MS. भूतवली ।

²¹ MS. बलात्कारगुण ।

²⁰ Here the date is wanting in the MS.

²² Metre: Sragdharā.

वहिरि ऐसै^१ ही पूर्वश्रीमूलसङ्ग विषै^२ प्रथम दूसरा स्वेतपदी गच्छ भया ॥ वहरि ता कै पीछै^३ काष्ठसङ्ग भया ॥ वहरि ता कै पीछै^४ द्राविड गच्छ भया ॥ वहरि ता कै पीछै^५ यापुलीय गच्छ भया ॥

(17) वहरि इत्यादिक गच्छ पीछै^६ केतेक काल पीछै^७ स्वेताम्बर भया ॥ वहरि यापनीय गच्छ, केकिपिच्छ, स्वेतवास, निःपिच्छ, द्राविड, यह पञ्च सङ्ग जैनाभास कहा है। जैन का सा चिह्नाभास हीसै है। सो या नै^८ अपणी^९ अपणी^{१०} बुद्धि के अनुसार करि सिद्धान्तों का व्यभिचारवर्णन कहा है ॥ श्रीजिनेन्द्र का मार्ग कू व्यभिचाररूप कीया। तदुक्तं नीतिसारे। श्लोक ॥

कियत्यपि ततोऽतीते काले श्वेताम्बरोऽभवत् ।

द्राविडो यापनीयश्च केकीसङ्गश्च मानसः ॥ १ ॥

केकीपिच्छः श्वेतवासो^{२३} द्राविडो यापुलीयकः ।

निःपिच्छश्चेति पञ्चैते जैनाभासाः प्रकीर्त्तिताः ॥ २ ॥

स्वस्वमत्यनुसारेण सिद्धान्तव्यभिचारणं ।

विरचय्य जिनेन्द्रस्य मार्गं निर्भेदयन्ति ते ॥ ३ ॥

ऐसै^१ जाननाँ ॥

(18) इहाँ कोई पूछै^२। पूर्व नन्दि-चन्द्र-कीर्त्ति-भूषण-आदि, नन्दिसङ्ग वहरि सेनसङ्ग वहरि देवसङ्ग वहरि सिंहसङ्ग आदिक ल्या, सो इनके आचार्य जुदे जुदे भए^३? ता की मान्य कैसै^४ है? या मै^५ परस्पर भेदभावरूपी मान्य है, कि एक मान्य है? ॥ ता का उत्तर। पूर्वोक्त गणगच्छादिक भए^६ हैं, सो पर कै सुखसाता भए^७ हैं। या कै विषै^८ कोई भी नहाँ भेद नाँही है। और प्रव्रज्यादि कर्म के विषै^९ भी समानता है। और जो पूर्वोक्त श्रीमूलसङ्ग के विषै^{१०} चतुःसङ्ग के भेद, आचार्यनि विषै^{११} जो भेदभाव करै है, सो सम्यक्दर्शन तै^{१२} रहित है, मिथ्यावृष्टि है, वहरि सो संसार के माँहि चिरकाल संचरै है। जा तै^{१३} यह चतुःसङ्ग के विषै^{१४} प्रतिमाँ के भेद, वहरि प्रायश्चित्तादि कर्म का भेद, वहरि आचार का भेद, वहरि वाचनादि शास्त्रनि का भेद, कोई कै भी परस्पर जुस भेद नाँहि, सर्व एक ही है। या तै^{१५} या मै^{१६} जे भेदभाव राखै है, सो सम्यक्दर्शन तै^{१७} रहित है, मिथ्यावृत्ति है, शीर्षसंसारी है^{१८} ॥ वहरि पूर्वोक्त चतुःसङ्ग सहित प्रतिष्ठित जि. नप्रतिमाँ, ता मै^{१९} और सन्देह नही करनाँ ॥ या तै^{२०} अन्य है, सो विपर्ययरूप है^{२१} ॥ भावार्थ। चतुःसङ्ग करि प्रतिष्ठित जो जिनबिम्ब सो पूजनीक है। या तै^{२२} अन्य कहिये स्वेताम्बरादिक कल्पित प्रतिमा है, सो विपर्ययरूप है ॥

(19) तदुक्तं नीतिसारे ॥ श्लोक ॥

गणगच्छाद्यस्तेभ्यो जातास्ते परसौख्यदाः ।

न तत्र भेदः कोप्यस्ति प्रव्रज्यादिषु कर्मसु ॥ १ ॥

चतुःसङ्गे नरो यस्तु कुरुते भेदभावनां ।

स सम्यग्दर्शनातीतः संसारे संचरत्यरं ॥ २ ॥

न तत्र प्रतिमाभेदो न प्रायश्चित्तकर्मणः ।

नाचारपाचनापद्यवाचनासु^{२४} विशेषतः ॥ ३ ॥

चतुःसङ्गेन महितं जिनबिम्बं प्रतिष्ठितं ।

नमेन्नापरसङ्कीर्णं यतो न्यासविपर्ययः ॥ ४ ॥

(20) ऐसै^१ पूर्वोक्त प्रकार भद्रवाह भए। ता कै^२ पीछै^३ और आचार्य अनुक्रम तै^४ भए है, सो किञ्चित् मात्र भद्र-वाह तै^५ ले कर याँ का वर्णन अनुक्रम तै^६ लिखिये है ॥ विक्रम राजा कू राज्यपदस्थ के दिन तै^७ संवत् केवल ४ के चौथे शुक्र १४ चतुर्दशी दिने श्रीभद्रवाह आचार्य भये। ता की जाति ब्राह्मण। गृहस्थ वर्ष २४ चौबीस। शिक्षा वर्ष ३० तीस। पटवर्ष २२ वार्षिक के उपरि मास १० द्वा दिन २७ सत्ताईस वहरि विरहदिन ३। तिन का सर्वायुवर्ष छिहत्तर ७६। पुनर्मास ११ ग्यारह ॥

(21) वहरि ता के पीछै^१ संवत् केवल छहवीस २६ का फाल्गुन शुक्र १४ चतुर्दशी दिन मै^२ गुप्तगुप्ति नाम आचार्य जाति परवार भये। ता का गृहस्थ वर्ष २२ वार्षिक का। वहरि शिक्षावर्ष १४ चौदह। पटवर्ष १ नौ, मास ६ छह, दिन २५ पचीस, विरह दिन ५ पाँच। या की सर्वायुवर्ष पैसठि ६५ मास ७ सात ६५।७ का जाननाँ ॥

Here follows the remainder of the pattaṭvali, which I omit. The method of each entry is sufficiently shown by the two initial entries above quoted. But the substance of the whole I again give in a tabular form below. The final entry runs as follows:—

(22) वडुरि ता के पीछे^{२५} पिच्चासीमाँ पड संवत् १४५० चौवह सै पचास का माघ शुक्ल पञ्चमी ५ नै^{२६} शुभचन्द्र भया ता का गृहस्थकाल का वर्ष १६ सोलह, दीक्षावर्ष १४ चौवह, पदस्थवर्ष ५६ छप्पन मास ३ दिन ४ च्यार विरह दिन १९ ग्यारह सर्वायुर्वर्ष ८६ छियासी मास ३ तीन दिन पन्द्रह १५ की भई ॥ इत्यादिक पढावली जाननाँ ॥

(23) ता के पीछे^{२७} भद्रबाहु सौ^{२८} लेर मेरुकीर्त्ति ताँई पड छव्वीस पर्यन्त वक्षिणदेश विषै^{२९} भइलपुरी मै^{३०} भए ॥२६॥ वडुरि महीकीर्त्ति आदि लेर महीचन्द्रान्त ताँई छव्वीस पड मालवा विषै^{३१} । ता मै^{३२} अठारह १८ सड्जैनी मै^{३३} भये । चन्देरी के विषै^{३४} ४ च्यार भए । भेल मै^{३५} ३ तीन भए । कुण्डलपुर एक भए १॥ यह सर्व छव्वीस २६ भए ॥ वडुरि ता के पीछे^{३६} वृषभनन्दि आदि सिंहकीर्त्ति अन्त ताँई पड बारह १२ वाराँ विषै^{३७} भए ॥१२॥ वडुरि ता के पीछे^{३८} कनककीर्त्ति आदि वसन्तकीर्त्त्यन्त पड दश १० चीतोड़ के विषै^{३९} भए ॥१३॥ वडुरि सूरचन्द्र १, माघचन्द्र १, ज्ञानकीर्त्ति १, नरेन्द्रकीर्त्ति १, ये च्यार पड ववेरै भये । ४ ॥ वडुरि प्रोष्ठिलकीर्त्ति आदि प्रभाचन्द्रान्त पड ६ छह अजमेर भये । ६^{२५} ॥ वडुरि पद्मनन्दी आदि शुभचन्द्रान्त पड २ शेष गुजरातदेश विषै^{४०} बागवर देश मै^{४१} भये ॥ वडुरि सकलकीर्त्ति आदि वागवर देश मै^{४२} भए ॥ ऐसै^{४३} श्रीमूलसङ्ग नन्दास्त्राय सारस्वतीगच्छ बलात्कारगण की पढावली अनुक्रम तै^{४४} जाननाँ ऐसै^{४५} ॥

(24) और सेनसङ्ग १, सिंहसङ्ग १, देवसङ्ग की १ पढावली जुरी है । सेनसङ्ग मै^{४६} जिनसेन आदि ऐसै^{४७} ही सर्वत्र जुड़ी जुड़ी पढावली आचार्यनि की है । ता के विषै^{४८} सेनसङ्ग मै^{४९} राज १, वीर २, भद्र ३, सेन ४, ऐसै^{५०} च्यार नाम है^{५१} ॥ वडुरि सिंह १, कुम्भ २, आम्भ ३, सागर ४, ऐसै^{५२} च्यार ४ सङ्ग के नाम सिंहसङ्ग मै^{५३} है^{५४} ॥ वडुरि देव १, दत्त २, नाग ३, लङ्ग ४, ऐसै^{५५} सिंहसङ्ग तै^{५६} और चौथा देवसङ्ग विषै^{५७} च्यार नाम है^{५८} ॥

(25) वडुरि पूर्वोक्त सेनसङ्ग विषै^{५९} सेनसङ्ग पुष्करगच्छ, सूरस्थगण जाननाँ ॥ वडुरि सिंहसङ्ग चन्द्रकपाटगच्छ काणूरगण सिंहसङ्ग विषै^{६०} है ॥ वडुरि देवसङ्ग पुस्तकगच्छ देशीगण यह देवसङ्ग विषै^{६१} है ॥

(26) तदुक्तं गाथा ॥

गन्दी चन्दो किच्ची भूषण नामा^{२६}हि गन्दिस्सङ्गस्स ।

सेणो राज्ञो^{२७} वीरो भदो तह^{२८} सेणसङ्गस्स ॥ १ ॥

सिंहो कुम्भो आसव सागर नामा हि सिंहसङ्गस्स ।

देवो दत्तो नागो लङ्गो तह देवसङ्गस्स ॥ २ ॥

इत्यादि दिगम्बरान्नाय विषै^{६२} आचार्यनि की बरिपाठी जाननाँ ॥

TRANSLATION,

Om! Salutation to the Perfect ones! In the fifth period, after the death of the Lord Mahāvira, its decadence took place on account of the badness of the times. Of the several pontiffs who came after him, I am going to give a brief account in their proper order.

§ (2) After the death of the last Tirthankar, the Lord Mahāvira, for 62 years, there abode Kēvala-jñānins. These I now name. After the Lord Vardhamāna had died, the Gaṇadhara Gautama attained the knowledge of Kēvalin. He abode for 12 years. After him the Lord Sudharman attained a Kēvalin's knowledge. He, too, abode as a Kēvalin for 12 years. After him the Lord Jambū attained the knowledge of a Kēvalin. He abode for 38 years. Thus, for 62 years there lived three Kēvalins in the fifth period.

§ (3) After this, there came in succession five Srutakēvalins, men versed in sacred lore, who possessed a knowledge of the eleven Āngas and the fourteen Pūrvas. Among them first was Viṣṇukumāra (who abode) for 14 years; after him (came) Nandimitra for 16 years: next Aparājita for 22 years; next Gōvardhana for 19 years; next Bhadrabāhu I. for 29 years. Thus their total period extended to 100 years. Up to this point of time 162 years must be understood to have passed since the death of the Lord Mahāvira.

(4) After this, there came eleven Munis who possessed a knowledge of eleven Āngas and ten Pūrvas. Their total period extended to 183 years. Among them the Āchārya Viśākha (abode) for 10 years, Prōsthila for 15, Nakshatra for 17, Nāgasēna for 18, Jayasēna for 21, Siddhartha for 17, Dhṛitisēna for 18, Vijaya for 13, Buddhilinga for 20, Dēva for 14, Dharmasēna for 16. Thus the total period of these men extended to one hundred and eighty-three years. Up to this point of time 345 years must be understood to have passed from the death of Mahāvira.

(5) After this there came five Munis, who (only) possessed a knowledge of the eleven Āngas. Among them the Āchārya Nakshatra arose 345 years after Mahāvira, and abode for 18 years. Next, 363 years after Mahāvira the Āchārya, named Jayapāla, arose. His period comprised 20 years. After him, and 383 years after Mahāvira, the Āchārya Pāṇḍava arose, and his period took up 39 years. After him, and 422 years after Mahāvira, the Āchārya Dhruvasēna arose. His period was 14 years. After him, and 436 years after Mahāvira, the Āchārya Kamsa arose. His period was 32 years. Thus the total period of these five Āchāryas extended to 123 years. All these only possessed a knowledge of the eleven Āngas.

(6) Again 468 years after the Lord Mahāvira there arose the Āchārya Subhadra. His period was 6 years. After him, and 474 years after the Lord Mahāvira, there arose the Āchārya Yaśōbhadra. His period was 18 years. After him, and 492 years after the death of Vīranātha, a second Āchārya named Bhadrabāhu (II.) arose. His period was 23 years. After him, and 525 years after Vīrasvāmin, came the Āchārya Lōha. His period was 50 years. Thus, the period of all these four Āchāryas was 97 years. Each of these four Āchāryas knew one Ānga less than his predecessor; their knowledge extended as far as the tenth, ninth, eighth and seventh Āngas respectively.

(7) After this there came five Munis, who possessed a knowledge of one Ānga (only). They are the following: 565 years after the death of the Lord Vardhamāna there arose the Āchārya Arhadbalin. His period was 28 years. After him, and 593 years after Vīra, the chief of the Jinas, there arose the Āchārya Māghanandin. His period was 21 years. After him, and 614 years after Sanmati Nātha, there arose the Āchārya Dharasēna. His period was 19 years. After him, and 633 years after the blessed Vīra, there came the Āchārya Pushpadanta. His period was 30 years. After him, and 663 years after Mahāvira, there came the Āchārya Bhūtavali. His period was 20 years. Thus they followed one another; and the traditional knowledge of the Āngas and Pūrvas went on till the year 683 after the death of the Lord Mahāvira, but it gradually decreased. The total period of the above named five Āchāryas, Arhadbalin and the others, extended to 118 years. Up to this point of time there lived Munis, who possessed the knowledge of (at least) one Ānga.

(8) After this there were only Munis, who were Srutajñānins, (i. e., who knew of the sacred lore only by hearsay). Of such as were actually able to recite an Ānga, there was none. The above is the traditional enumeration of the Āchāryas.

(9) On this subject there are the following Gāthās :—

(See the translation, *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 347ff. The gāthās are the same as those cited in pattāvalī A, except that the three verses describing the Third period of the Ten-Pūrvins are omitted in pattāvalī C, apparently by a mere oversight of the scribe.)

Thus it is written in the (work called) Vikrama Prabandha. This gives the traditional enumeration of the Āchāryas of the Jain religion, as they followed in regular order after the Lord Mahāvira.

(10) Now in the year 470 after the death of the Lord Vīra the birth of King Vikrama took place. Now it took place [2 years]²⁰ after the above-named Subhadra Āchārya's (accession to the pontificate). Again the accession to the pontificate of the above-named Āchārya

²⁰ The bracketed clause is wanting in the original text, probably by a mere oversight of the scribe.

Bhadrabāhu II. took place 4 years after Vikrama's accession to the throne. Further Bhadrabāhu II. had a disciple named Gupti. The latter had three names, viz., 1, Guptagupti³⁰, 2, Arhadbalin, 3, Viśākhāchārya. Further he had four disciples, viz., 1, one who used to keep his four-monthly rainy season's retreat in the (hollows) lower part of a tree of the Nandi species; this was the Āchārya Māghanandin, who founded the Nandi Saṅgha: 2, one who originated the practice of keeping the rainy season's retreat under bushes;³¹ he was called Jinasēna, and founded the Sēna Saṅgha: 3, one who used to keep his rainy season's retreat in the hole of a lion, hence he founded the Simha Saṅgha: 4, one who used to keep his rainy season's retreat in the house of a courtesan named Dēvadattā; (he founded) the Dēva Saṅgha. Thus, there arose four Saṅghas of Āchāryas in the Jain religion during the fifth period.

(11) Further in the before-mentioned Nandi Saṅgha there were the following names in use (for the Saṅgha): 1, Nandi Saṅgha, 2, Pārijāta Gachchha, 3, Balātkāra Gaṇa: and the following four names for the Munis, viz. 1, Nandin, 2, Chandra, 3, Kīrtti, 4, Bhūṣhaṇa. Also the following four (names for the Saṅgha) were in use: 1, Śrī Mūla Saṅgha, 2, Nandi-Āmnāya, 3, Sārasvatī Gachchha, 4, Balātkāra Gaṇa; and the four already-mentioned names for Munis: 1, Nandin, 2, Chandra, 3, Kīrtti, 4, Bhūṣhaṇa.

(12) On this subject the following śloka occurs in the Nīṭisāra, a work of Indranandin:—

The Guru Arhadbalin effected the excellent combinations into Saṅghas: the Simha Saṅgha, the Nandi Saṅgha, the famous Sēna Saṅgha, and the Dēva Saṅgha, which are well known to be distinguished by the places of their establishment.³²

(13) Further the year 492 after the Lord Mahāvīra, which was the 24th year of Subhadra's pontificate, was also the 22nd year after the birth of Vikrama. Again in the fourth year of the latter's reign Bhadrabāhu succeeded to the pontificate.

(14) Now 470 years after Mahāvīra King Vikrama was born. Afterwards he passed 8 years in child's play; next he spent 16 years in wandering over different countries; next he passed 56 years in ruling (his own country), being (at the same time) devoted to various sorts of heresy: finally having abandoned his earlier heresies and fostered the Jain religion for forty years, he obtained admission among the gods. Thus was the birth, etc., of King Vikrama.

(15) On this subject there are the following Gāthās in the Vikrama Prabandha:—

"It was the year 470 when the birth of Vikrama took place. For eight years he played as a child; for sixteen he roamed over the country; for fifty-six he exercised rule, being given over to false doctrine; for forty years he was devoted to the religion of the Jina and then obtained heaven."

(16) Thus there arose in the Mūla Saṅgha Gaṇas, Gachchhas, Saṅghas, and such like (distinctions). On this subject there is the following verse in the Nīṭisāra:—

"First there arose from the Mūla Saṅgha the Sitapaṭa (or white-robed) Saṅgha, and then the Kāshṭha Saṅgha. Then there arose the so-called Drāviḍa (Saṅgha), and then again a certain Yāpuli Saṅgha. In that Mūla Saṅgha, adorned by many Munis, there was the Sēna and the Nandi Saṅgha; also the Saṅgha of wide reputation, which was called after Simha; and as the fourth there was the Dēva Saṅgha."

Thus then in the original Mūla Saṅgha there arose first another Svēta Paṭṭi, or "white-robed," Gachchha, after that there came the Kāshṭha Saṅgha, after that the Drāviḍa Gachchha, and finally the Yāpuliya Gachchha.

(17) Further, some time after the above-mentioned Gachchhas the Svētāmbaras came into existence; also the Yāpanīya Gachchha, the Kēkipichchha, the Svētavāsa, the Nihpichchha, and the Drāviḍa. These five Saṅghas are called false Jains. They adopt marks in imitation

³⁰ Or rather, Guptigupta.

³¹ Text: *triṇa-tala vishai*, lit. 'at the foot of grasses.'

³² Referring to the places probably, where the several retreats used to be kept in the rainy seasons.

of the Jains; but they, drawing on their own imagination, hold tenets in variance with the Siddhāntas (or Holy Scriptures), and follow practices contrary to those of the Jinendra (or founder of Jainism). On this subject, there are the following ślōkas in the Nītisāra:—

“Then after the lapse of some time there arose the Svētāmbara, the Drāviḍa, and the Yāpanīya (Saṅgha), as well as the Kēkī Saṅgha through arrogance. The Kēkīpichchha, the Svētāvāsa, the Drāviḍa, the Yāpulyaka, and the Nīlpichchha; these five are well-known as being false Jaina sects. Having in reliance on their imagination elaborated practices in variance with the Siddhāntas, they have caused divisions in the religion of the Jinendra.”

Thus it should be understood,³³

(18) Here the question may be asked: “It has been mentioned that there are (Āchāryas called) Nandin, Chandra, Kirtti and Bhūshana, and that there are the four Saṅghas called Nandi, Sēna: Dēva and Simha, now do the Āchāryas of these Saṅghas differ among themselves? In what estimation should they be held? Are they to be considered as differing among themselves, or are they to be considered as one?” To this the following answer (is to be given):— “The Gaṇas, Gachchhas, etc., which, as above mentioned, have arisen, have been the channels of eternal happiness. Among them there exists no sort of difference; and in their mendicant and other practices they are alike. And as to the above-mentioned four Saṅghas into which the Mūla Saṅgha is divided, if any one make a difference between the Āchāryas, he is devoid of truth and is a heretic; moreover such people have for a long time been leading a worldly life. Therefore in these four Saṅghas there is no difference of images, nor any difference in penitential and other practices, nor any difference of rules, nor any difference in their teaching and in their scriptures; in no single point is there any difference between them; they are all alike. Hence those who maintain a difference, are devoid of the truth and are heretics and worldlings of old standing. And there is no reason to entertain any more doubts regarding such Jina images as are consecrated and adored in the four Saṅghas; all others that there are, are heretical.” In short; “any image that is consecrated by the four Saṅghas, should be worshipped; all others, such as the images made by the Svētāmbaras and others, are heretical.”

(19) On this subject, there are the following ślōkas in the Nītisāra:—

“The Gaṇas, Gachchhas and others that have arisen from them, are the grantors of eternal bliss. There is between them no difference whatever in their monastic and other practices. If any man imagine any difference in the four Saṅghas, he has travelled beyond the truth and is gone completely into the world. In them there is no difference of images nor of penitential observances; nor is there any distinction in their rules and readings. Any Jina image

³³ It may be useful for purposes of comparison, to add here the notices of the Digambaras, which Muni Ātmārāmji, the head of the Vijayagaṇa of the Svētāmbaras, gives in his *Jaina Mata Vriksha*, or Genealogical Table of the Jains:— “In 609 A. V., Śivabhūti Sahasramalla, the disciple of Kṛishṇa Sāri, originated the Digambara sect (*mata*). He had two disciples, Kaundinya and Kaushṭavira. After these two there came Dharasēna, Būṭavali and Pushpadanta. These commenced, in 638 A. V., on the 5th day of the bright half-month, to compose three, śāstras, viz., 1, the *Dhavaḷa* comprising 70,000 ślōkas, 2, the *Jayadhavaḷa* comprising 60,000 ślōkas, and 3, the *Mahādhavaḷa* containing 40,000 ślōkas. These three śāstras exist to the present day in the Karnaṭaka country; and borrowing from them Nēmichandra (No. 17 or 67 P) composed the *Gomāṭhasāra* for the perusal of Rājā Chāmūṇḍa. No śāstra older than these three is to be found among the Digambaras. Afterwards the Digambaras became divided into four Śākhās, viz., 1, Nandi, 2, Sēna, 3, Dēva, 4, Simha. Later on there arose four Saṅghas, viz., 1, Mūlasaṅgha, 2, Kāshthā Saṅgha, 3, Māthura Saṅgha, 4, Goppa Saṅgha. Still later, there arose the following Panthās; viz., 1, the Visapanthī, 2, the Tērāpanthī, 3, the Gūmānapanthī, and 4, the Tōtāpanthī, i. e., those who worship a book (*pustaka*) in the place of an image (*pratimā*). At first Śivabhūti originated the *Nagna-pantha* (or the ordinance of nakedness); next he taught that a woman could not be saved (*moksha*), and that a Kēvalin should not eat a morsel; finally he taught a mass (*lit.* eighty-four) of other things. In our days, the Tērāpanthīs have put forth a mass (*bahut hī*) of heterogeneous things, which may be learned by comparing their old with their new books.” With regard to the origin of the Tērāpanthīs he adds in another note to the *Vriksha*:— “In Sam. 1709 Lavaji, the adopted son of Phulā Bāl, the daughter of the Bōrā Viraji of the Lumpaka sect (i. e., the Nāgōr section; see above, p. 68), together with Dharmadāsa, the cotton-printer, originated the *pantha* (or sect) of the month-covering Dhumṛdhakas. These divided into 22 sections, the second of which is the Dhanāji section. Dhanā's disciple (*chēlā*) was Shūdhdhara; his disciple was Raghunāthaji; his disciple Bhishama originated the Tērāpanthīs and propagated the sect of Mukhabandhas (or mouth-coverers).”

consecrated and adored by the four Saṅghas one should reverence, but not any of any other Saṅgha, because this only leads to heresy."

(20) Thus, in the manner above explained, Bhadrabāhu arose. After him came other Āchāryas in regular order. Of these I am going to write only a brief account in their proper order, commencing with Bhadrabāhu. It was not more than 4 years after the date of the accession to the throne of King Vikrama, on the 14th day of the light half of Chaitra, that Bhadrabāhu succeeded to the pontificate; by caste he was a Brāhmaṇ; as a householder he lived for 24 years, as an ordinary monk for 30 years; as pontiff for 22 years 10 months and 27 days; the intercalary days were 3; the total period of his life was 76 years and 11 months.

(21) After him, not more than 26 years (after Vikrama), on the 14th day of the light half of Phālguna, Guptigupta, a Parvār by caste, succeeded to the pontificate. He lived as a householder for 22 years, as an ordinary monk for 14, as pontiff for 9 years, 6 months and 25 days; the intercalary days were 5; the total period of his life was 65 years and 7 months.

(22) After this the 85th pontificate³⁴ began in the year 1450 after Vikrama, when, on the 5th day of the light half of Māgha, Subhachandra succeeded. He lived as a householder for 16 years, as an ordinary monk for 14 years, as pontiff for 56 years 3 months and 4 days; the intercalary days were 11; his total period was 86 years, 3 months and 15 days. This should be understood to be the pattāvalī (or list of the pontiffs).

(23) After this (it is to be added that) the 26 pontificates, commencing with Bhadrabāhu down to Mērukirtti, took place in Bhaddalpurī in the Southern Country. Again the 26 pontificates, commencing with Mahikirtti down to Mahāchandra, took place in Mālvā. Among the latter 18 took place in Ujjainī, 4 in Chandēri, 3 in Bhēl, and one in Kuṇḍalpur. These make up the 26 pontificates. After this, 12 pontificates, commencing with Vṛishabhanandin and ending with Simhakirtti, took place in Vārā. After this 10 pontificates, commencing with Kanakakirtti and ending with Vasantakirtti, took place in Chītōr. After this, 4 pontificates, viz., of Sūrachandra, Māghachandra, Jñānakirtti, and Narēndrakirtti, took place in Vaghēr. After this, 6 pontificates, commencing with Prōshṭhīlakirtti and ending with Prabhāchandra, took place in Ajmēr. After this 2 pontificates, viz., those of Padmanandin and Subhachandra, took place in Vāgvar in Gujarāt. After this Sakalakirtti succeeded to the pontificate in Vāgvar. This is the list of pontiffs in their proper order in the glorious Mūlasaṅgha, the Nandi Āmnāya, the Sārasvatī Gachchha, the Balātākāra Gaṇa.

(24) Further the pattāvalīs of the Sēnasaṅgha, Simhasaṅgha and Dēvasaṅgha are separate. In the Sēnasaṅgha there is a pattāvalī of Āchāryas in all respects different, commencing with Jinasēna. In that (pattāvalī) there are four names in use for the Sēnasaṅgha, viz., 1, Rāja, 2, Vīra, 3, Bhadra, 4, Sēna. Again the four names, in use in the Simhasaṅgha, are 1, Simha, 2, Kumbha, 3, Āsrava, 4, Sāgara. Again in the Dēvasaṅgha, the fourth after the Simhasaṅgha, there are the following 4 names in use, viz., 1, Dēva, 2, Datta, 3, Nāga, 4, Langa.

(25) Further it should be understood that the above-named Sēnasaṅgha is known by the (three) names Sēna Saṅgha, Pushkara Gachchha and Sūrastha Gaṇa. Similarly the Simhasaṅgha is known by the (three) names Simha Saṅgha, Chandra Kapāṭa Gachchha, and Kāṇūra Gaṇa. Again the Dēvasaṅgha is known by the (three) names Dēva Saṅgha, Pustaka Gachchha, and Dēśī Gaṇa.

(26) On this subject there are the following gāthās:—

"Nandi, Chanda, Kittī, Bhūsaṇa, these are the names of the Nandisaṅgha. Sēna, Rāja, Vīra, Bhadda, are those of the Sēnasaṅgha. Simha, Kumbha, Āsava, Sāgara are the names of the Simhasaṅgha. Dēva, Datta, Nāga, Langa are those of the Dēvasaṅgha."

This is a complete enumeration of the Āchāryas within the Digambara Community.

³⁴ The intermediate pontificates are given in the subjoined table.

Table of the Pontifical Succession in the Sârasvatî Gachchha of the Digambaras; from MS. C.

Serial Number.	NAMES.	Dates of accession.		Householder.			Monk.			Pontiff.			Intercalary days.	Total.			REMARKS.
		Saṃvat.	A.D.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.		Years.	Months.	Days.	
1	Bhadrabâhu II ...	4	B. C.	53	24	...	30	22	10	27	78	6	11	...	Brâhman by caste.
		C. S. 14															
2	Guptigupta	26		81	22	...	34	9	6	23	5	65	7	...	Parwâr by caste. (So also C, but A has Pawâr, B Pamâr. MS. has Guptagupti).
		Ph. S. 14															
3	Mâghanandin	36		21	20	...	44	4	4	26	4	68	5	...	
		Â. S. 14															
4	Jinachandra	40		17	24	9	32	3	...	8	9	6	3	65	9	9	
		Ph. S. 14															
5	Kundakunda	49		8	11	...	33	41	10	10	5	85	10	15	Hunivâd by caste (MSS. A, D give him 51 years pontificate, and a total of 95). ²⁵
		P. V. 8															
6	Uṃśvâmin	(101)	A. D.	44	19	...	25	40	8	1	5	84	8	0	
		K. S. 8															
7	Lôhachârya	142		85	21	...	38	10	10	20	6	69	10	26	(So also MSS. B, C, but MSS. A, E have A. S. 14.)
		As. V. 14															
8	Yasâkîrtti	153		96	12	...	21	58 (8)	(21)	(5)	91	(9)	(15)		(MSS. A, D give the same inconsistent dates.)
		J. S. 10															
9	Yasônandin	211		154	16	...	17	46	4	9	4	79	4	13	(So MSS. B, D, but MS. A has Ph. V. 11.)
		Ph. V. 10															
10	Dêvanandin	258		201	11	5	15	49	10	28	4	76	11	2	(MSS. A, B, D add Pôrwal by caste.)
		As. S. 8															
11	Jayanandin	308		251	15	5	11	7	...	44	11	22	7	71	6	29	(MSS. A, B, D have Pâj-yapâda.)
		J. S. 10															
12	Gupanandin	358		296	14	...	13	5	...	11	3	1	4	38	8	5	(MS. has 358 Saṃvat.)
		J. S. 9															
13	Vajranandin	364		307	19	...	(73)	3	...	(40)	2	(20)	(9)	(76)	5	(20)	(MS. A gives correct dates.)
		Bh. S. 14															
14	Kumâranandin ...	386		329	16	...	10	2	...	40	2	20	9	66	4	29	
		Ph. V. 4															
15	Lôkachandra	427		360	18	...	16	26	3	16	10	60	3	26	
		J. V.															
16	Prabhâchandra ...	453		396	9	...	24	25	5	15	11	58	5	26	
		Bh. S. 14															
17	Nêmichandra ...	478		421	10	...	22	8	9	1	9	40	9	10	
		Ph. S. 10															
18	Bhânunandin	487		430	10	...	25	21	9	24	12	56	10	6	(MS. A gives a pontificate of 22, inconsistent with 508 Saṃvat.)
		P. V. 5															
19	Nayanandin	508		451	9	...	15	16	7	15	14	40	7	29	(MSS. A, B, D have Harinandin; P. 10, Simhanandin.)
		M. S. 11															
20	Vasunandin	525		468	10	...	30	6	7	22	9	46	8	1	(MSS. A, D give different, though equally consistent months.)
		Â. S. 10															
21	Vīranandin	531		474	9	...	13	30	...	14	10	52	...	24	
		P. S. 11															
22	Ratnanandin	561		504	8	...	12	23	4	7	11	43	4	18	(MSS. A, B, D have Ratnakîrtti; but (P. 10, Ratnanandin.)
		M. S. 5															

²⁵ MS. adds; "He had five names (*nâma*): Padmanandin, Vakragrîva, Grîdhrapîchohha, Êlâchârya, Kundakundâchârya. The special reasons for having these names may be known from another book (*grantha*)."

Serial Number.	NAMES.	Dates of accession.		Householder.			Monk.			Pontiff.			Intercalary days.	Total.			REMARKS.
		Samvat.	A. D.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.		Years.	Months.	Days.	
23	Mānukyanandin ..	535 As. V. 8	528	10	19	16	5	10	15	45	5	25	(MSS. A, B, D Māpika-nandin.)
24	Mēghachandra ...	601 P. V. 3	544	24	(3)	17	7	(3)	13	25	(5)	2	15	56	(10)	17	(MS. A gives equally inconsistent dates.)
25	Śāntikīrtti I.	627 As. V. 5	560	7	10	15	...	25	25	32	1	20	(MSS. A, D agree in different though equally consistent days.)
26	Mērukīrtti	642 Ś. S. 5	585	8	11	44	3	13	13	63	3	26	(MSS. A, D give different though equally consistent days. D has Ś. V. 5.)
27	Mahikīrtti	636 Mr. S. 4	629	6	22	17	11	5	15	45	11	20	(MSS. A, D give different though equally consistent years; they also have Mahākīrtti.)
28	Vishnunandin	704 Mr. V. 9	647	7	14	21	4	...	31	42	5	1	(MSS. A, D give different, but equally consistent days.)
29	Śrībhūshapa I.	726 C. S. 9	669	14	8	9	26	31	...	26	
30	Śrī Chandra	735 V. S. 5	678	6	12	14	3	4	31	32	4	5	
31	Śrinandin	749 Bh. S. 10	692	15	20	15	6	4	13	50	6	17	(MSS. A, B, D have Nandikīrtti, but P 12, Śrinandin.)
32	Dēśabhūshapa ...	765 C. V. 12	708	18	24	6	6	7	42	6	13	
33	Anantakīrtti	765 Ā. S. 10	708	11	13	19	9	25	10	43	10	5	(MSS. A, D give different, though equally consistent days.)
34	Dharmanandin ...	735 Ś. S. 15	723	13	18	22	9	25	5	53	10	...	
35	Vidyānandin	803 J. S. 15	751	13	25	32	...	4	4	70	...	8	(MSS. A, B, D have Virachandra, and A, D give different, though equally consistent days.)
36	Rāmachandra	840 As. V. 12	733	8	11	16	10	...	6	35	10	6	
37	Rāmākīrtti	857 V. S. 3	790	14	16	21	4	26	11	51	5	7	
38	Abhayachandra ...	878 Ā. S. 10	821	18	10	17	...	27	4	45	1	1	
39	Navachandra	(897) K. S. 11	840	15	21	18	9	...	9	54	9	9	(This agrees partly with MS. B, partly with MS. A.)
40	Nāgachandra	916 Bh. V. 5	859	21	13	23	..	3	10	57	...	13	
41	Harinandin	939 Bh. S. 3	832	9	10	8	9	11	9	27	9	20	(MSS. A, B, D have Nayanandin, and different, but equally consistent years. A has Bh. S. 9. See No. 19.)
42	Harichandra	943 As. V. 8	891	8	4	...	14	8	...	26	1	8	9	49	1	17	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent days.)
43	Mahāchandra I. ...	974 Ś. S. 9	917	14	10	11	...	16	5	40	11	5	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent months. MSS. B, D have Sam. 972 and so on.)
44	Māgachandra I. ...	990 M. S. 14	933	13	20	32	2	24	9	65	3	3	

Serial Number.	NAMES.	Dates of accession.		Householder.			Monk.			Pontiff.			Intercalary days.	Total.			REMARKS.
		Samsvat.	A.D.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.		Years.	Months.	Days.	
45	Lakshmiçandra...	1023	986	21	25	14	4	3	11	60	4	14	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent years.)
46	Gupakīrtti	1037	970	18	20	10	10	29	14	48	11	18	(MSS. A, B, D have Gupanandin, but B, D add Gupakīrtti on margin.)
47	Gupachandra	1048	991	10	22	17	8	7	10	49	8	17	
48	Lōkachandra II ...	1066	1009	15	30	13	3	3	4	58	3	7	
49	Śrutakīrtti	1079	1022	13	32	15	6	6	6	60	6	12	
50	Bhāvachandra	1094	1037	12	15	20	11	25	5	48	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent years.)
51	Mahāchandra II ...	1115	1058	10	26	25	5	10	5	61	5	15	(MS. D has different, but equally consistent years. MSS. D, P have Mahāchandra.)
52	Māghachandra II..	1140	1088	14	18	4	3	17	7	31	3	24	
53	Brahmanandin ...	1144	1087	7	37	2	4	1	4	46	4	5	(So P. 16, but MSS. A, B, D have Vṛṣabhanandin. MSS. A, D have different, but more consistent years.)
54	Dēvanandin II.....	(1148)	1091	9	7	7	6	10	14	23	6	24	(MSS. A, B, D have Śivanandin, and A, D have different, though consistent dates.)
55	Vivāchandra	1155	1098	11	24	7	28	3	35	8	1		(So P. 16, but MSS. A, B, D have Vasuchandra. MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent years.)
56	Harinandin	1156	1099	7	32	4	...	24	5	43	...	29	(So also P. 17, but MS. A Sanghanandin, MSS. B, D Sishananda.)
57	Bhāvanandin	1160	1103	11	30	7	2	...	8	43	2	3	
58	Dēvanandin II.....	1167	1110	11	30	3	3	2	10	44	3	12	
59	Vidyāchandra	1170	1113	14	30	5	4	29	10	49	5	9	(MSS. A, D have entirely different, but equally consistent dates.)
60	Śūrachandra	1176	1119	14	35	8	1	29	2	57	2	1	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent years.)
61	Māghanandin II...	1184	1127	14	6	2	16	1	...	4	1	...	5	34	8	7	(MSS. A, D have entirely different, but equally consistent dates.)
62	Jñānanaudin	1188	1131	10	34	10	...	3	7	55	...	10	(So also P. 18, but MSS. A, B, D Jñānakīrtti. From here the term antarālā din.)
63	Gaṅgākīrtti	1199	1142	13	33	7	2	8	10	58	2	18	
64	Śubhākīrtti	1206	1149	8	27	2	2	15	16	37	3	1	(MSS. A, D have different but equally consistent years.)
65	Hemākīrtti	1209	1152	13	24	7	3	27	6	44	4	3	
66	Chārunandin	1216	1159	6	9	...	19	3	...	6	6	20	10	32	7	...	(So also P. 18, but MSS. A, B, D Sundarakīrtti.)

Serial Number	NAMES.	Dates of accession.		Householder.			Monk.			Pontiff.			Intercalary days.	Total.			REMARKS.
		Samvat.	A.D.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.		Years.	Months.	Days.	
67	Nēminandin II ...	1223 V. S. 3	1166	7	21	7	8	29	7	35	9	6	(So also P. 19; but MSS. A, B, D Nēmichandra, A, D have different, but equally consistent days.)
68	Nābhikīrtti	1230 M. S. 11	1173	5	35	1	11	26	4	42	
69	Narēndrakīrti	1232 M. S. 11.	1175	14	13	9	..	18	12	36	1	..	
70	Śrīchandra II	1241 Ph. S. 11	1184	7	22	6	3	24	7	35	4	1	(MSS. A, D give different but equally consistent years.)
71	Padmakīrtti.....	1248 As. S. 12	1191	10	22	4	11	25	6	37	..	1	
72	Vardhamāna	1253 Ās. S. 13	1193	13	5	2	11	8	13	25	11	21	(So P. 19, but A, B, D Varadhachandra. A, D give different, but equally consistent dates)
73	Akalāṅkachandra.	1256 As. S. 14	1199	14	33	1	3	24	7	48	4	1	
74	Lalitakīrtti	1257 K. S. 15	1200	13	24	4	5	41	..	5	
75	Kṣāvachandra ..	1261 Mr. V. 5	1204	11	34	6	15	5	45	6	20	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent days)
76	Chārukīrtti	1262 J. S. 11	1205	12	32	2	3	2	7	46	3	9	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent years)
77	Abhayakīrtti	1264 Ā. V. 3	1207	11	2	..	30	5	4	11	7	41	11	18	(MSS. B, D have A.V.3.)
78	Vasantakīrtti	1264 M. S. 5	1207	12	2	1	4	22	8	15	5	..	(A, D have different, probably consistent dates.)
79	Prakṣāntikīrtti...	1266 As. S. 5	1209	11	15	2	3	16	4	28	3	20	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent days. MSS. B, D have Prakṣāntikīrtti.)
80	Viśālakīrtti	1263 K V. 8	1211	18	23	2	9	7	8	43	9	15	(A, B, D Śāntikīrtti.)
81	Dharmachandra...	1271 Ś. S. 15	1214	19	9	25	5	(41)	..	5	(A, D have different, and most consistent dates.)
82	Batnakīrtti II.....	1296 Bh. V. 13	1239	19	25	14	4	10	6	53	4	16	
83	Prabhāchandra ...	1310 P. S. 14	1253	12	12	74	11	15	8	98	11	23	
84	Padmanandin	1335 P. S. 7	1323	10	7	..	23	5	..	65	..	18	10	99	..	28	
85	Śubhachandra.....	1450 M. S. 5	1393	16	14	56	3	4	11	86	3	15	(MSS. A, D have different, but equally consistent years. He was succeeded by Sakalakīrtti, see § 23.)

PATTĀVALĪ D.

This pattāvalī is drawn on the plan of pattāvalī B, with which it also agrees very closely in regard to names and dates; that is, it gives no introductory or concluding remarks, but consists only of the list of successions commencing with Bhadrabāhu II., interspersed with a few short notes. It differs, however, from B, in giving full details of every pontifical life, as is

done in A and C. The list is carried down in it to No. 100, Nainakirtti, who succeeded to the pontificate in A. D. 1822. As his successor followed in 1826 (see *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 353), it follows that *paṭṭāvali* D must have been written between 1822 and 1826.

I now subjoin the short interspersed notes, as well as those successions, in which D differs from other *paṭṭāvalis*. From No. 88, D alone gives full details of the lives.

After No. 51 Mahāchandra II., there is the following note :—

एता पाठ मालवै भदिलापुर (in No. 26 भदलापुर) हुवा । २६ हुवा । पठ २५ उजीण ने^० हुवा । महीचन्द्र ताँई सर्व पठ ५१ ॥

i.e., "These pontificates took place in Bhadilāpur (or Bhadalāpur) in Mālavā; they were 26 in number; 25 pontificates took place in Ujīṇa (Ujjain); down to Mahāchandra the total of pontificates was 51."

After No. 63 Gaṅgākirtti, there is the following note :—

ए पठ वारा ने^० हुवा गङ्गाकीर्त्ति जी ताँई । ग्वालैर भटा सँ लेर पठ १४ हुवा । अभेकीर्त्ति जी ताँई पठ ७७ ॥

i.e., "These pontificates took place in Vārā, down to Gaṅgākirtti; beginning from here 14 pontificates took place in Gwālēr; down to Abhayakirtti there were (altogether) 77 pontificates."

After No. 83 Prabhāchandra II., there is the following note :—

संवत् १३७५ दिन सँ एक भटार्क प्रभाचन्द्र जी के आचार्य छी । सो गुजरात मे श्री भटार्क जी तो न छल अरु वै आचार्य ही छल । सो महाजन एक प्रतिष्ठा को उद्यम कीयो । सो वै तो न आय पहुँच्या । जदि आचार्य ने सूरिमन्त्र विनाय भर भटार्क पदवी गुजरात की हीन्ही प्रतिष्ठा करिवा पाछै । तठा सँ गुजरात मे पठ थारो ॥ आचार्य सँ भटार्क हुवो । नाम पद्मनन्द जी कीयो ॥

i.e., "In Samvat 1375 there was a certain Āchārya belonging to (the suite of) the Bhaṭṭāraka Prabhāchandra. Now the Bhaṭṭāraka himself was not in Gujārāt, but that Āchārya was there. Now a certain Mahājan (or banker) had resolved to perform a consecration. Now he (Prabhāchandra) could not arrive in time; so he (the banker) caused the Āchārya to receive the powers of a Sūri and conferred on him the Gujārātī title of Bhaṭṭāraka, after he had performed the consecration. Thenceforth his pontifical residence was in Gujārāt. The Bhaṭṭāraka title dates from that Āchārya. The name Padmananda was given to him."

In *paṭṭāvali* B, the corresponding note runs thus :—

प्रभाचन्द्र जी के आचार्य गुजरात मे^० छी । सो वटै एकै आवक प्रतिष्ठा ने^० प्रभाचन्द्र जी ने^० बलायौ । सो वै नाया । तदि आचार्य ने^० सूरमन्त्र (read सूरि^०) दे भटारक करि प्रतिष्ठा कराई । तदि भटारक पद्मनन्दि जी हुवा । त्याँ पाषाण की सरस्वती मुदै बुलाई ॥

i.e., "There was an Āchārya belonging to (the suite of) Prabhāchandra in Gujārāt. Now there (*i.e.*, in Gujārāt) a certain Srāvaka called Prabhāchandra to perform a consecration. Now he could not come. Then having given to the Āchārya the powers of a Sūri and having made him a Bhaṭṭāraka, he got the consecration performed. Then he became the Bhaṭṭāraka Padmanandin. He carved a stone figure of Sarasvatī and made it to speak." (See *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 354, No. 83).

The last circumstance is thus referred to in *paṭṭāvali* P :—

पद्मनन्दी गुरुजाँतो बलात्कारगणामणी ।
पाषाणघटिता येन वासिता श्रीसरस्वती ॥
उज्जयन्तगिरौ गच्छः (स्वच्छः) सारस्वतो ऽभवत् ।
अतस्तस्मै मुनीन्द्राय नमः श्रीपद्मनन्दिने ॥

i.e., "The Guru Padmanandin then became the leader of the Balātkāra Gana, — he who made the stone figure of the glorious Sarasvatī to speak. (Thus) on mount Ujjayanta the (pure) Gachchha came to be (called) the Sārasvata. Hence let us give honour to him, the great Muni Padmanandin."

From this notice it would seem that the miracle of the speaking figure of Sarasvatī took

place on the mount Ujjayanta, and that it was the cause of the Gachchha being called the 'Sârasvatî Gachchha.'

After No. 87, Prabhâchandra, there is the following note:—

एकै वार गच्छ २ नीकल्य, ग्वालैर को नागौर को, संवत् १५७२ का ॥

i.e., "Once the Gachchha separated into two, that of Gvâlêr, and that of Nâgôr, in the year 1572." Or it might also mean "Once from the Gachchha (at Chitôr) two (branches) came out, that of Gvâlêr and that of Nâgôr." But the former version is more probable, to judge from the wording of the corresponding passage in A, which is as follows:—

एकै वार गच्छ का दोय ड्वा, चितोड भर नागौर को, सं० १५७२ का ॥

i.e., "Once the Gachchha split up into two, those of Chitôr and of Nâgôr, in the year 1572."

Table of Pontifical successions in which D differs from A and E.

Serial number.	NAMES.	Dates of accession.		Householder.			Monk.			Pontiff.			Intercalary days.		Total.			REMARKS.
		Samvat.	A. D.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.	Years.	Months.	Days.			Years.	Months.	Days.	
18	Mânanandin	487 P. V. 5	430	10	15	21	...	24	12	46	1	6		(Here A, D, E have each different dates. A, E Bhânanandin).
24	Mêghachandra ...	601 P. V. 8	544	24	...	17	7	25	5	2	13	56	6	2		(A, E give each different and inconsistent dates).
38	Abhayachandra ...	878 Â. S. 10	821	18	10	17	...	20	11	45	1	1		(A, E give different days).
40	Nâgachandra	916 Bh. V. 5	859	21	23	23	...	3	10	67	...	13		(A, E give different years.)
51	Mahâchandra	1113 Ch. V. 5	1056	10	26	26	5	10	5	62	5	15		(A, E differ entirely).
81	Dharmachandra ...	1271 Ś. S. 15	1214	16	24	25	...	5	...	65	...	5		(A, E differ each).
86	Jinachandra.....	1507 J. V. 5	1440	12	15	64	8	17	10	91	8	27		(So also B, E; but A transposes the names Nos. 86 and 87).
87	Prabhâchandra ...	1571 Ph. V 2	1514	15	35	9	4	25	8	56	5	3		
88	Dharmachandra ...	1581 Ś. V. 5	1524	9	31	21	8	13	5	61	8	18		(From here D alone gives details of the lives).
89	Lalitakîrtti	1603 Ch. S. 8	1546	7	25	19	...	15	7	51	...	22		
90	Chandrakîrtti	1622 V. V. ?	1565	P	P	P	P	P	P	40	9	23	P	P	P	7		(Down to No. 94, most of the details are wanting).
91	Dêvêndrakîrtti....	1662 Ph. V. ?	1605	P	P	P	P	P	P	28	7	25	7	P	P	P		
92	Narêndrakîrtti ...	1691 K. V. 8	1634	11	P	P	P	30	8	15	8	P	P	P		
93	Surêndrakîrtti.....	1722 Ś. V. 8	1665	P	P	P	P	P	P	10	11	10	17	P	P	P		
94	Jagatkîrtti	1733 Ś. V. 5	1676	11	26	37	5	29	7	74	6	6		
99	Sukhêndrakîrtti ...	1852 P	1795	4	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P		(From No. 95-100 names and dates as in B, but all details are wanting).
100	Nainakîrtti	1879 As. V. 10	1822	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P		(Here the patṭavali closes).

PATTĀVALĪ E.

In its general arrangement, this pattāvalī resembles pattāvalīs A and C. It begins with an introduction, followed by the pattāvalī proper. But the latter, like pattāvalī B, gives only a list of the names and dates of accession of the pontiffs. A peculiar feature of it is that it adds notices regarding the caste of each pontiff. In a few exceptional cases such notices are also given in pattāvalī D; and these are noted in the tabular statement below. I am doubtful, however, regarding the correct spelling of many of the caste-names; some of them I cannot identify. That the tradition represented in pattāvalī E considerably differs from that of the other pattāvalīs has been already referred to; also that it gives the succession list of the so-called Chitōṣ section. The latter it brings down to No. 102, Mahēndrakīrtti, who succeeded in 1880 A. D. and is probably still living.

In the following, I again give the introduction *in extenso*, and the pattāvalī proper in tabular form. In the latter my own remarks are within brackets.

TEXT.

Introduction of Pattāvalī E.

(1) अथ वंसावली गुराँ की लिख्यते ॥ श्रीमहावीर जी १, गोतम स्वामी २, सुधरमा स्वामी ३, जम्बू स्वामी ४ ॥ वरस ६२ ताँई केवली हुआ ॥ ४ ॥

(2) विष्णुनन्द जी श्रुतज्ञानधारी ५, नन्दमित्र जी श्रुतज्ञानधारी ६, अपराजित जी श्रुतज्ञानधारी ७, गोवरधन जी श्रुतज्ञानधारी ८, भद्रबाहू जी श्रुतज्ञानधारी ९ ॥ वरस सो ताँई ॥ ९ ॥

(3) विसाखाचार्य दशपूर्व का पाठी १०, (प्रोष्ठिल जी दशपूर्व का पाठी,²⁰) क्षत्रिय जी दशपूर्व का पाठी ११, जयसेन जी दशपूर्व का पाठी १२, नागसेन जी दशपूर्व का पाठी १३, सिद्धार्थ जी दशपूर्व का पाठी १४, धृतिसेन जी दशपूर्व का पाठी १५, विजयसेन जी दशपूर्व का धारी १६, वडधूलि जी दशपूर्व ० ॥ १८३ वरस ॥ ९ ॥

(4) गङ्गादेव जी ग्यारा अङ्ग का पाठी १७, धर्मसेन जी ग्यारा अङ्ग का पाठी १८, नक्षत्राचार्य ग्यारा अङ्ग धारी १९, जयपाल जी ग्यारा अङ्ग धारी २०, पाण्डव जी ग्यारा अङ्ग धारी २१, भुवसेन जी ग्यारा अङ्ग धारी २२ ॥ वरस ताँई रहा ॥ १५ ॥

(5) कंसाचार्य प्रथम अङ्ग का धारी २२, सुभद्र जी प्रथम अङ्ग का धारी २३, जसोभद्र जी प्रथम अङ्ग का धारी २४, भद्रबाहू जी प्रथम अङ्ग धारी २५, लोहाचार्य जी प्रथम अङ्ग धारी २६, विनयधर जी प्रथम अङ्ग धारी २७ ॥ वरस ताँई २० ॥

(6) श्रीदत्तसेन जी २७, सिवदत्त जी २८, अरदत्त जी २९ ॥ भद्राबाहू जी स० १०४ कै साल पाट बैठा काती सुदि १४ ॥ सेताम्बर ऐठा सौ निकस्या पढावली प्रवृत्ति करी ॥ ३० ॥

Here follows the pattāvalī. After No. 21 (45)²⁰ there is the following remark:—

येसा पढ सो मालव देस मै हुआ ॥ २६ ॥

Similar remarks follow after No. 23 (47), 60, 75 (91), 80, 86 (98), 88, 92 (102), 93, 94 (103), 95, 96.

TRANSLATION.

§ 1. Here the Vamsāvalī (list of succession) of the Gurus is written down:—

(1) The glorious Mahāvīra, (2) the Lord Gôtama, (3) the Lord Sudharmā, (4) the Lord Jambū. These were Kēvalins for 62 years. Altogether 4.

¹⁹ The bracketed portion is wanting in the MS., owing probably to a mere slip; as the totalisation at the end of the paragraph shows.

²⁰ It will be noticed that the numbering, actually given in the pattāvalī, is very capricious, some members being left unnumbered, without any apparent reason. These capricious numbers are quoted within brackets.

§ 2. Then came those versed in sacred lore (*śrutajñāna-dhārī*), viz., (5) Viṣṇuṇanda, (6) Nandamitra, (7) Aparājita, (8) Gōvardhana, (9) Bhadrabāhu I. These (abode) for 100 years. Altogether 9.

§ 3. Then came those who could recite 10 Pūrvas, viz., (10) Viśākṣhācārya, [Prōshhila,] (11) Kshattriya, (12) Jayasēna, (13) Nāgasēna, (14) Siddhārtha, (15) Dhṛitisēna, (16) Vijaya-sēna, Vahudhūli. These lived for 183 years. Altogether 9.

§ 4. Then came those who could recite 11 Āngas, viz., (17) Gaṅgādēva, (18) Dharmasēna, (19) Nakshatrācārya, (20) Jayapāla, (21) Pāṇḍava, Dhruvasēna. These abode for 220 years. Altogether 15.

§ 5. Then came those who could recite (only) the first Āṅga; viz., (22) Kamsa, (23) Subhadra, (24) Jasoḥbhadra (25) Bhadrabāhu II., (26) Lōhācārya, and Vinayadhara. These abode for 118 years.

§ 6. Then came (27) the glorious Dattasēna, (28) Śivadatta, (29) Aradatta, and (30) Bhadrabāhu III., who succeeded to the pontificate on the 14th of the light half of Kātik, in the year 104 after Vikrama. The Svētāmbaras originated at this time and commenced a patṭāvalī of their own.

Note after No. 21:— Now these 26 pontificates took place in the Mālavā country.

Varṇsāvalī of the Gurus of the Digambaras. From MS. E.

Serial Number.	Number in MS.	Names.	Dates of accession.		REMARKS.	Serial Number.	Number in MS.	Names.	Dates of accession.		REMARKS.
			Samvat	A. D.					Samvat	A. D.	
1	1 (30)	Bhadrabāhu III	104 K. S. 14	47	From him the Svētāmbaras went forth and initiated a patṭāvalī of their own. (In A, B, C, D Brāhman by caste).	15	11	Lōkachandra..	427 J. V. 4	360	Lavēchū by caste
						16	12	Prabhachandra	453 Bh. S. 14	396	Pancham Śrāvak by caste.
						17	13	Nēmachandra.	478 Ph. S. 10	421	Nagam Śrāvak by caste.
3	2 (31)	Māghananda...	136 Ā. S. 14	79	Sawāl by caste (A has Sāh.).	18	14	Bhānūnanda...	487 P. V. 5	430	Dusar by caste.
4	3 (32)	Jinachandra...	140 Ph. S. 14	83	A Chōsarā Pūrvāl. (C has Hūrvad.)	19	15	Śirīhananda ...	508 M. S. 11	451	Śrīmāl Sakaryā by caste.
5	4 (33)	Kundakunda..	149 P. V. 9	92	Palīvāl by caste.	20	16	Vasunanda ...	525 Ā. S. 10	468	Vadhnērā by caste.
6	5 (34)	Umāsvāmi.....	201 K. S. 9	144	A Śrāvak of Ayō-dhyā.	21	17	Virananda ...	531 P. S. 11	474	Labēchū by caste.
7	6 (35)	Lōhācārya ...	242 As. S. 14	185	Labēchū by caste	22	18	Ratnananda ...	561 M. V. 5	504	Vāgaḍya by caste.
8	7 (36)	Jasakīrti	253 As. S. 9	196	Pūrvāl by caste; (A, B, D have Jāyālāl).	23	19	Māpikananda..	535 As. V. 12	528	Agarvālā by caste.
12	8	Gupānanda ...	363 J. S. 4	306	Pūrvagolā by caste.	24	20	Mēghachandra	601 P. V. 3	544	Khaṇḍālāl
13	9	Vajrananda ...	364 Bh. S. 14	307	Gōlapūrb by caste.	25	21	Śāntikīrti.....	627 As. V. 6	560	Sahajāl by caste. All these 26 had their seat of pontificate in Mālavā.
14	10 (37)	Kumārānanda.	326 Ph. V. 4	329	Sahajāl by caste						

Serial number.	Number in MS.	Names,	Dates of accession.		REMARKS.	Serial number.	Number in MS.	Names.	Dates of accession.		REMARKS.
			Samvat.	A. D.					Samvat.	A. D.	
26	22 (45)	Mérakirtti	642 S. S. 3	585	Jaisvāl by caste,	44	44	Vāsavachandra	1066 J. S. 1	1009	Sahajvāl by caste. (So also P.14).
27	23 (47)	Mahākirtti ...	686 Mr. S. 15	629	Sahajvāl by caste Up to here the seat of pontificate was in the town of Bhīdalpur in Mālavā,	45	45	Lōkachandra	? J. S. 1		Sahajvāl by caste
28	24	Vasunanda ...	704 Mr. S. 9	647	Vāgdyā by caste. (D has Vāgaḍ.)	46	46	Surakirtti	1079 Bh. S. ?	1022	Sachānū by caste
29	25 (47)	Śrībhūshana...	726 Ch. S. 9	669	Sahajvāl by caste.	47	47	Bhāvachandra	1096 Ch. V. 5	1039	? by caste.
30	26	Śilachandra ...	735 V. S. 5	678	Śrīmāl by caste.	48	48	Mahichandra..	1115 Ch. V. 5	1058	Śrīmāl by caste.
31	27 (48)	Śrīnanda	749 Bh. S. 10	692	Nāgadrahā by caste.	49	49	Māghachandra	1140 Bh. S. 5	1083	Pancham Śrāvak by caste.
32	28 (49)	Dēśabhūshana.	765 Ch. V. 12	708	Śrīmāl by caste.	50	50	Brahmananda.	1144 P. V. 14	1087	Vadhnōrā by caste.
33	29	Anantakirtti..	766 A. S. 10	709	Pōrvāl by caste.	51	51	Sivananda.....	1148 V. V. 14	1091	Sahajvāl by caste.
34	30 (50)	Dharmananda.	785 S. S. 15	728	Nāgaḍyā by caste.	52	52	Siyachandra ..	1155 Mr. S. 5	1098	Vadhnōrā by caste.
35	31 (51)	Vidyānanda ...	808 J. S. 5	751	Vaghērvāl by caste.	53	53	Harinanda ...	1156 S. S. 6	1099	Sichāpi by caste.
36	32	Rāmachandra.	840 As. V. 12	783	Pancham Śrāvak by caste.	54	54	Bhāvananda ..	1160 Bh. S. 5	1103	Dumak Śrāvak by caste.
37	33 (52)	Rāmakirtti ...	857 V. V. 3	790	Lavēchū by caste	55	55	Surakirtti	1167 V. S. 9	1110	Dhākadya Śrāvak by caste.
38	34 (53)	Abhayachandra	878 A. S. 10	821	A Śrāvak of Ayodhyāpurī.	56	56	Vidyāchandra.	1170 Ph. V. 5	1113	Vāgaḍa Śrāvak by caste
39	35 (54)	Narachandra..	897 K. S. 11	840	Nagam Śrāvak by caste.	57	57	Surachandra..	1176 S. S. 9	1119	Narsimhapurā by caste.
40	36 (55)	Nāgachandra..	916 Bh. S. 5	859	Bāgaḍ by caste.	58	58	Māghananda...	1184 A. S. 10	1127	Chatrurath Śrāvak by caste.
41	37 (53)	Nayanānanda.	989 Bh. S. 3	882	Dusar by caste.	59	59	Gunāyanananda.	1188 Mr. S. 1	1131	Gagarī by caste.
42	38 (57)	Harichandra ..	948 As. V. 9	891	Sōrā Vaghērvāl by caste.	60	60	Gaṅgākirtti	1199 M. V. 11	1142	(Caste omitted). All these 37 Pontiffs resided in Wārā Vadoā.
43	39	Mahichandra..	974 S. S. 9	917	Dākadya by caste	61	61	Simhakirtti .	1106 Ph. V. 14	1149	Narsinghpurā by caste.
44	40 (58)	Māghachandra	990 M. S. 10	933	Padmāvatī Pōrvāl by caste.	62	62	Hēmakirtti ...	1209 J. V. 11	1152	Hummaḍ by caste.
45	41 (59)	Lakshmi-chandra.	1023 J. V. 2	966	Agarālā by caste,	63	63	Chārnanda ...	1216 A. S. 3	1159	Sahajvāl by caste.
46	42 (60)	Gunakirtti ...	1037 A. S. 1	970	Gōlvāl by caste.	64	64	Nēmananda .	1223 V. S. 3	1166	Nīgaḍ Rāhās by caste.
47	43 (61)	Gunachandra..	1043 Bh. S. 14	991	Gōlāpūrah by caste.	65	65	Nābhikirtti ..	1230 M. S. 11	1173	Nagam Śrāvak by caste.
						66	66	Narēndrakirtti	1232 M. S. 11	1175	Nīgaḍ Rāh by caste.
						67	67	Śrīchandra ...	1241 Ph. S. 11	1184	Nāgarvāl Vāg-dya by caste.
						68	68				
						69	69				
						70	70				
						71	71				
						72	72				
						73	73				
						74	74				
						75	75				
						76	76				
						77	77				
						78	78				
						79	79				
						80	80				
						81	81				
						82	82				
						83	83				
						84	84				

Serial number.	Number in MS.	Names.	Dates of accession.		REMARKS.	Serial number.	Number in MS.	Names.	Dates of accession.		REMARKS.
			Saṃvat.	A. D.					Saṃvat.	A. D.	
71	68 (85)	Padmakīrtti .	1248 As. S. 12	1191	Pūrval by caste.	88	85 (97)	Dharmachandra.	1581 Ś. V. 5	1524	Gaṅgāval by caste. (So also D.)
72	69 (86)	Vardhamāna ..	1253 As. S. 13	1196	Vadhnōrā by caste.	89	86 (98)	Lalitakīrtti ..	1603 Ch. S. 9	1546	Gōdhā by caste. He pontificated in Chīṭōr. (So also D.)
73	70 (87)	Akalaṅka	1256 As. S. 14	1199	Pūrval by caste.	90	87	Chandrakīrtti.	1622 V. S. 11	1565	Gandhā by caste.
74	71 (88)	Lalitakīrtti ...	1257 K. S. 15	1200	Lavēchā by caste	91	88	Dēvēndrakīrtti	1662 Ph. U. 11	1605	Sēthī by caste. He pontificated in Sāngānēr.
75	72	Kāśavachandra	1261 Mr. V. 5	1204	Caste ?	92	89 (99)	Narēndrakīrtti	1691 K. V. 11	1634	Sōgānī by caste. (So also D.)
76	73 (89)	Chārukīrtti	1262 J. S. 11	1205	Pancham Śrāvak by caste.	93	90 (100)	Surēndrakīrtti	1712 Ś. S. 9	1655	Kālā by caste. (So also D.)
77	74 (90)	Abhayakīrtti..	1264 Ā. V. 3	1207	Ath Sākhā Pūrval by caste.	94	91 (101)	Jagatkīrtti ...	1733 Ś. S. 7	1676	Sōkhā Rāyā by caste. (D has Sākhūrā Yōgi.)
78	75 (91)	Vasantakīrtti	1264 M. S. 5	1207	Sāh Rayōd by caste. All these 15 pontiffs resided in Gvālēr.	95	92 (102)	Dēvēndrakīrtti	1770 M. V. 11	1718	Vōiyā by caste. (D has Gōdhā) These four pontiffs resided in Āvairi.
80	76 (92)	Viślakīrtti	1266 As. S. 5	1209	Pancham Śrāvak by caste.	96	93	Mahēndrakīrtti	1792 P. S. 10	1735	Pāpādivāl (So also D.) He pontificated in Dill (Delhi)
79	77 (93)	Śubhakīrtti ..	1268 K. V. 11	1211	Sāh Varā by caste.	97	94 (103)	Kshēmēndrakīrtti.	1815 As. S. 11	1758	Pīṭanī by caste. (So also D.) He pontificated in Jaspur.
81	78	Dharmachandra.	1271 Ś. S. 15	1214	Sēthī by caste.	98	95	Surēndrakīrtti	1822 V. V. ?	1785	Pahāiyā by caste. (So also D.) In Jaipur.
82	79 (94)	Ratnakīrtti .	1296 Ā. S. 13	1239	Nāgad Bahā by caste.	99	96	Surēndrakīrtti	1852 Mr. V. 9	1795	Anōpada Svāl by caste. (D has Anōpadāvōlī kā patvārī.) He pontificated in Jaipur.
83	80	Prabhāchandra	1310 P. V. 10.	1253	Padmāvati Pūrval by caste. All these 5 pontiffs resided in Ajmēr.	100					
84	81	Padmananda	1385 P. S. 9	1328	Caste ?	101	97	Narēndrakīrtti.	(D has Nainakīrtti, a Kālā by caste).
85	82 (95)	Subhachandra	1450 M. S. 5	1393	Agarvālā by caste.	102	98	Dēvēndrakīrtti			
86	83 (96)	Jinachandra .	1507 J. V. 5	1440	Agarvālā by caste. (So also D.)		99	Śrīratna Mahēndrakīrtti.			
87	84	Prabhāchandra	1571 Ph. V. 2	1514	Vaidya Gōtra by caste. (So also D.)						

POSTSCRIPT.

Since writing the foregoing paper, I have procured the Deccan College Manuscript of the *Vikrama Prabandha*. On examination I find it to be an altogether different work from the one referred to in the *paṭṭāvalis*. The latter was in *Prākṛit* verse, while the *Vikrama Prabandha* of the Deccan College Library is in *Sanskrit* verse, and contains a few folk tales connected with *Vikrama*: in fact, it is identical with the *Panchadanda-chhattra Prabandha*, published by Prof. A. Weber in 1877.

On the other hand, the Deccan College manuscript of the *Nītisāra*, which I have also procured, is the work in question. It is a very small work, consisting of 113 ślokas, and giving brief explanations of a number of Digambara technicalities. With the exception of one, all the quotations in the *paṭṭīvalī* are confirmed by this manuscript.

The first quotation, in § 12, constitutes the ślokas 6 b and 7 in the *Nītisāra*. There is, however, a slight difference in the second line, which reads in the Deccan Manuscript as follows:—

सेनसङ्को नन्दिसङ्को सिंहसङ्को महाप्रभुः ।

The third quotation, in § 17, forms the 9th, 10th and 11th ślokas in the *Nītisāra*. In that manuscript the 2nd, 3rd, and 5th lines read a little differently:—

द्राविडो यापनीयश्च काष्ठसङ्को मानतः ।

शोणुष्ठिकः स्वतवासो द्राविडो यापनीयकः ।

स्वस्वमत्यनुसारेण सिद्धान्तं व्यभिचारिणं ।

The fourth quotation, in § 19, forms ślokas 8, 12, 13, 14 in the *Nītisāra*. In that manuscript they read as follows:—

गणगच्छादयस्तेभ्यो जाताः स्वपरसौख्यदाः ।

न तत्र भेदः कोप्यस्ति प्रव्रज्यादिषु कर्मसु ॥ ८ ॥

चतुःसंख्यां नरो यस्तु कुरुते भेदभाषनां ।

स सम्यग्दर्शनातीतः संसारे संवरत्यरं⁸¹ ॥ २२ ॥

नात्र प्रतिक्रमे भेदो न प्रायश्चित्तकर्मणि ।

नाचारवाचनाद्युक्तवाचनासु विशेषतः ॥ २३ ॥

चतुःसङ्कीर्णसहितायां जैनं बिम्बं प्रतिष्ठितं ।

नमेन्नापरसङ्कोस्य यतो न्यासविपर्ययः ॥ २४ ॥

The second quotation, in § 16, I cannot find in the Deccan College Manuscript. It is a verse written in the *Sragdharā* metre. The whole of the *Nītisāra* is written in ślokas, with the exception of the last (113th) verse, which happens to be in the *Sragdharā* metre. This last verse, however, does not belong to the body of the work, but contains a laudatory reference to the author, *Indranandin*. It does not seem probable therefore, that the verse, quoted in § 16, really belongs to the *Nītisāra*. The Deccan College MS. has all the appearance of being complete.

That the author, *Indranandin*, belonged to the *Sārasvatī* Gachchha is shown by his being described in verse 113 as a clever follower of *Kundakunda*. He does not appear in the pontifical succession list. There are, however, certain indications to fix the dates of himself and his work. In verses 67-70 he enumerates a number of celebrated (*sattama*) Munis from all the four Saṅghas. The latest in date among those quoted from the Nandi Saṅgha are *Prabhāchandra* and *Jinachandra*, Nos. 86 and 87 in the list. The latter died 1524 A. D. At the end of the manuscript, — quite independently of the work, — there is the remark that it was written *Śrī-Lalitachandra-pañhanārtham*, 'for the reading of *Śrī-Lalitachandra*.' This person, in all probability, is the same with *Lalitakīrti* II., No. 89, of the pontifical list (*Chītôr* section), who died in 1565 A. D. Between these two dates (1524 and 1565) *Indranandin* should have lived and written the *Nītisāra*. As *Lalitakīrti* (or *Lalita Chandra*) pontificated from 1546 to 1565 A. D., the Deccan College MS. was most probably written within that period; and there is just a possibility that it is the autograph of *Indranandin* himself, who may have been a disciple of *Lalita Chandra*.

⁸¹ The MS. has संवरत्यरेते, *arati* and *alati* having the same meaning.

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.

(Continued from page 13.)

C. — KHALSI, DHAULI-JAUGADA, COLUMNAR EDICTS, BHABRA, SAHASARAM, RUPNATH, BAIRAT.

The Spelling of the remaining edicts is so similar, that it will be advantageous to group all the facts together in one view.

The edicts are referred to by their initial letters: Dh. = Dhauli; Kh. = Khâlsi; S. = Sahasaram; R. = Rûpnâth; B. = Bairât; Bh. = Bhabra. For the Columnar Edicts, I have taken, as typical, the only complete version, the most correct and that best known, that of the pillar of Firûz Shâh at Dehli (D). I only cite the divergencies of the other versions (D²ARM) when they appear to me to present points of special interest, and to be not merely accidental transformations.

The text of Jaugada is, in the series of the fourteen edicts, almost invariably identical with that of Dhauli. Dr. Bühler only notes four points of divergence; according to his texts I count at most seven or eight; the text of Jaugada, being moreover less complete than that of Dhauli, offers nothing new. The case is not the same with regard to the detached (or 'separate') edicts; here the two versions more frequently shew points of difference, which are not all devoid of interest. Under these conditions Dhauli, as a general rule, answers for both, and I shall content myself with merely drawing attention, in the proper place, to forms peculiar to Jaugada.

The fragments of the Queen's Edict, of the edict of Kausâmbî, and of the inscriptions of Barâbar, are too short and too damaged to lend themselves to methodical treatment.

1. — PHONETICS.

(a). — Vowels.

Changes of Quantity. — Kh. does not mark, for *i* and *u*, the distinction between long and short. The solitary instance in which an *i* has been read: *piyadasî*, I, 2 (Bühler) is so indistinct, that the facsimile of General Cunningham gives it as short. I have no doubt that he is right. — R. and B. read *jambudîpasi*, which is not sufficient ground for us to conclude that they would not have marked the long vowel, if the text had brought it again elsewhere; and that especially, because at Bh. we have certain examples of *i* and *û*. We must, therefore, conclude that this peculiarity belongs only to Kh.

Vowels lengthened. — KHÂLSI. — A final very often becomes *â*, more often, indeed, than it remains short. I quote only a few examples of each case: *abhisitasâ*, XIII, 35, &c.; *abhisitênâ*, IV, 13, &c.; *âhâ*, passim (once only *âha*, VII, 6); *ajâ*, IV, 9; *châ* (more frequent than *cha*); *êvâ*, II, 6, al.; *hidâ*, I, 1, al.; *palatâ*, IX, 27, &c.; *punâ*, passim; *mamâ*, V, 13; *vâ*

(= *va*, *êva*), III, 7, &c. — In the middle of words, I note *sukhâyâmi*, VI, 20; *lâtî*, VIII, 23.

DHAULI. — Finals: *âhâ*, III, 9, al. (never *âha*); *âlâdhayêvû*, det. II, 6; *chalêvû*, det. II, 5; *nîkhamâvû*, III, 10; *pâpunêvû*, det. II, 7; *yujantû*, IV, 8; *mamâ*, det. I, 5; *nâ*, I, 4; *vasêvutî*, VII, 1 (Jaug. °i). — In the interior of words, we find several instances of lengthening, some of which are compensatory or accidental: *-sahâsâni*, I, 3; *tâkhasilatê*, det. I, 24; *abhikâlê*, V, 25; *chilâhitikê*, V, 27; VI, 33; *nichê*, VII, 2; *anâvûtiya*, det. I, 11; *nithûliyêna*, det. I, 11; *hîlâhna*, VIII, 5 (Jaug. h°) can only be an error of the engraver.

DEHLI. — Finals: *âhâ* (*âhâ*), passim; *apahatâ*, VI, 3 (RM °a), if the form is really equivalent to *apahritya*; *anupatipajâyâ*, VII-VIII, 17; *asvasâ*, V, 18 (RM °sa); *bhayênâ*, I, 4; *châ*, passim; *êvâ*, I, 6 (RM °va); *gônâsâ*, V, 18 (RM °sa); *hémêvâ*, I, 8; VI, 6 (ARM °va); *jâ*, *napadasâ*, IV, 5 (RM °sa); *lôkasâ*, VI, 2, 4, (RM °sa); *mamâ*, IV, 12 (D²ARM °ma); *papôvâ*, VI, 13 (ARM °va); *usâhênâ*, I, 5; *vaðhêyâ*, VII-

VIII, 13, 16, 18; *sādāhā*, II, 11 (ARM °*dhu*). D. VI, 8 and I, 4 writes *pūjāyā*, *palikhāyā* and *susūśāyā*, the instrumental written in *āya* by RM. — Medial vowels: -*ddkhināyē*, II, 13 (D²ARM *da*°); *anupaṭipajā*, VII-VIII, 10, 21, 3; *anupaṭipajisati*, VII-VIII, 10; *saṃpaṭipatiya*, VII-VIII, 8; *anūpaṭiparinē*, VII-VIII, 7; *niṭhūliyē* III, 20; *pachūpagamanē*, VI, 8 (A *piχhu*°); *paṭibhōgē*, VII-VIII, 3 *paṭivisiṭham*, VII-VIII, 5 (by the side of *paṭivisiṭham*); *pavajitānān*, VII-VIII, 4; *putāpapōtikē*, VII-VIII, 10; *saṃpaṭipajisati*, II, 16 (D²ARM °*ji*°).

Instead of the *chilānṭhitikā* of D, II, 15, D² gives *chilāṭhitikā* and ARM *chilānṭhitikā*; instead of the *chaghanṭi* of D, IV, 10, D² gives *chaghanṭi*.

BHABRA. — Finals: *āhā* 1; *chā* (four times; twice *cha*); *ēvā*, 8. — Medials: *chilāṭhitikē*, 4.

SAHASARĀM. — Finals: *avalādhiyēnā*, 6; *chā*-4, 5 (more often *cha*); *paṇnā* (= *paṇcha*), 6-*likhāpayāthā*, 7. — Medials: *chilāṭhitikē*, 5.

RUPNĀTH. — Finals: *apalādhiyēnā*, 4; *paka*, *mamānēnā*, 3; *v(i)ya(n)janēnā*, 5; *vyuṣhēnā*, 5.

BAIRĀT. — *dhā*, 1; *chā*, 6.

Vowels shortened. — KHĀLSI. — Finals: *ma*, XIII, 14; — Medials: *ananiyaṇ*, VI, 20; *ayatiyē*, X, 27; *akālēna*, XII, 32; *avāhasi*, IX, 24; *abhihamāni*, VIII, 22; *avān*, XIII, 6; *avataṭē* XIII, 39; *ōpayā*, VIII, 23; *lājā*, X, 28; *lājānē*, XIII, 5; *viṇamanē*, XIII, 36.

DHAULI. — Finals: *anuvigina* (nom. pl.), det. II, 4; -*viyōhālaka*, det. 1, 1, and other noms. plur.; *ichha*, det. II, 4; *sōtaviya*, det. I, 18; *lāja*, det. II, 4; *atha* (*yatha*), four times against twice *athā*; *paja*, V, 27; *va* (= *vā*), V, 21, 25, 26; VI, 28, 30; det. I, 20, 21. — Medials: *niti*, det. 1, 8, 12 (?); *sa(n)khina*, det. 1, 22.

DEHLI. — Finals: *ajaka*, V, 7 (RM °*kā*); *asvatha* IV, 4, 13; *aiha*, VI, 4 (RM °*ihā*); III, 20; *ēsa* (nom. fem.), I, 9 (ARM °*sā*); *lāja* (nom.), passim (by the side of *lājā*); *siya* IV, 15; *tatha*, VI, 6 (RM °*ihā*). — Medials: *āladhi*, VII-VIII, 10; *ava*, IV, 15, (A *anva*, M *āvā*); *avahāmi*, VI, 6; *palibhasayisān*, III, 21; *anuvichhiyānti*, VII-VIII, 7 (°*dhī*°, 1, 7); *anulupāyā*, VII-VIII, 13, 16, 18; *bhūtānān*, VII-VIII, 9; *ōpayā*, VIII, 5.

In the following instances other versions present a short vowel, as against a regular long

one at D.: *abhītā*, IV, 4, RM *abhīta*; D. I, 6 *apekhā*, RM °*kha*; D. VI, 8, *atanā*, RM °*na*; D. IV, 10, *athā*, D² °*tha*; D. IV, 13, *avimanā*, D²RM °*na*; D. IV, 3, *āyatā*, RM °*ta*; *likhāpitā*, D. I, 2; II, 15; IV, 2; VI, 2, 9, RM °*ta*; *abhītā*, D. IV, 12, D²R °*bhi*°; *aṭhamāpakhāyē*, D. V, 15, D²RM °*mi*°; D. III, 20, *isyākālānēna*, RM °*syā*°.

Changes of Quality. — KHĀLSI. — *a* into *i*: *majhimēnā*, XIV, 8; *piχhē* (?) (= *paṣchāt*), I, 4; into *ē*: *hēta* (= *atra*), VIII, 23, al.; into *u*: *munisa*, II, 6; — *i* into *ē*: *ēdisāyē*, IX, 24; — *u* into *a*: *galu*, XIII, 36, 38; into *i*: *munisa*, II, 6; — *ē* into *i*: *gihiṭhā*, XIII, 38; *mi*, XIV, 19; — *ō* into *ē*, not only at the end of words, and for *aḥ*, as in *pulē*, I, 3; *mukhatē*, VI, 18; — there are some exceptions, as *lājānē*, II, 5; *kēlalaputē*, II, 4; *sātiyaputē*, II, 4, — but in *kalēti*, V, 13; IX, 24; *apakalēti*, XII, 32; *upakalēti*, XII, 32.

Ri changes to *a*: *adhē*, IX, 17; *ananiyaṇ*, VI, 20; *bhatiyā*, XII, 33; *vadhī* and *vadhi*, passim; *bhaṭakasi*, XIII, 37, al.; *kata*, passim; *gahathāni*, XII, 31; *matē*, *maṭē*, XIII, 35, 36, 39; *nikati*, VI, 19; *usaṭēna*, X, 28, 29; *viyāpaṭa*, XII, 34, al.; *viṭhaṭēnā*, XIV, 18; — into *i*: *ādisē*, IV, 10; *diḍha*, VII, 22; *gihiṭhā*, XIII, 37; *ēdisāyē*, IX, 24; *kiṣamānata*, VII, 22; *migē*, I, 4; *migaviyā*, VIII, 22; *ādisē*, IV, 10; — into *u*: *palipuchhā*, VII, 23; *lukhāni*, II, 6; *vudhānān*, VIII, 23; *vutaṇ*, XIII, 9.

DHAULI. — *a* into *u*: *avucha*, VII, 2; IX, 16, (Jaug. *avacha*); *munisa*, VII, 1, al. (by the side of *manusa*); — *a* into *e*: *hēta* (*atra*), XIV, 19; — *i* into *a* in *puṭhaviyaṇ*, V, 26; — *i* into *ē*: *anusathē* (for °*thi*) VI, 31; — *u* into *i*: *munisa*, loc. cit.; *pulisa*, det. I, 7, 8; — *ē* into *i*: *asamati*, XIV, 19; *vēditu*, det. II, 6 (for °*dē*° = °*dayi*°); *pitēnikēsu*, V, 23; — *ō* into *ē* in *kalēti*, V, 20, al.; and at the end of words when derived from *aḥ*: *bhūyē*, *dhanmatē*, &c. (*nē* = *nō*, *na*, at Jaug. det. I, 4, is doubtless only an incorrect reading).

Ri becomes *a*: *ādasē* IV, 14; *ananiyaṇ*, det. II, 9; VI, 32; *bhaṭi*, V, 23; *bhaṭaka*, IX, 8; *kaṭa*, passim; *vadhī*, IV, 18; *usaṭēna*, X, 16; *viyāpaṭā*, V, 24; — *i*: *ādisē*, IX, II; *ēdisāni*, VIII, 3; *hēdisa*, passim; *dhiti*, det. II, 6; *tādisē*, IV, 14; — *u*: *lukhāni*, II, 8; *puṭhaviyaṇ*, V, 26; *vudha*, IV, 15; VIII, 4; perhaps *kutē*, det. I, 16.

JAUGADA. — *a* final changes into *u* in *savatu*, II, 8 (Dh. °*ta*); — *i* into *é* in *ānanēyañ* (= *ānaniyañ* = *ānriṇyañ*), det. I, 9; det. II, 13.

DEHLI. — *a* into *i*; *majhima*, I, 7; — *a* into *u*: *-muté* (ARM), VI, 19; *munisānañ*, VII-VIII, 2, al.; — *u* into *i*: *munisa*, passim; *pulisa*, I, 7, al.; *mina*, III, 8, if it really is equivalent to *punah*, which appears doubtful; into *ô*: *gôti*, I, 10; — *é* into *i*: *sūkalé*, V, 8 (D^a °*li*); *gihithānañ*, VII-VIII, 4; *līkhāpitā*, passim; — *ô* (*ah*) final into *é*: *itē*, IV, 15. — Instead of *sēyatha*, V, 2, A has *sayatha*. — *Ṛi* changes to *a*: *apahatā*, VI, 3 (if really equivalent to *apahritya*); *apakaṭhēsū*, VI, 5; *bhaṭakēsū*, VII-VIII, 8; *vaḍhi*, VII-VIII, 8, al.; *kapana*, VII-VIII, 8; *kaṭa*, passim; *viyāpaṭā*, VII-VIII, 4, 5, 6; — into *i*: *nisijitu*, IV, 10.

BHABRA. — *é* changes to *i* in *līkhāpayāmi*, 8; — *ri* into *i* in *adhigichya*, 6.

SAHASARĀM. — *é* changes to *i* in *līkhāpayāthā*, 7; — *munisā*, 3; — *kaṭā*, 3; *misāñ* (= *mṛishā*), 2, 3.

RUPNĀTH. — *Pavatisu* (for °*tē*), 4; — *amisā*, 2; *kaṭā*, 2, al.

BAIRĀT. — *Bāḍhi* for °*dhē*, 2.

ADDITIONS AND SUPPRESSIONS. — KHĀLSI. — Additions: *galahā*, XII, 31; *galahati* XII, 33; *supaddlayē*, V, 14 (if equivalent to *supradāryaṇ*); — *sinēhē*, XIII, 38; — *puluva*, passim; *kuvāpi*, XIII, 39; *suvāmikēnā* IX, 25. — Suppressions: *pi*, passim; *ti* (*iti*, IX, 26); *va* (= *éva*), IX, 26, alias.

DHAULI. — Additions: *supaddlayē*, V, 22; *anuvigindā*, det. II, 4; *ithē*, IX, 7; *kilamathēna*, det. I, 11; *palikilésē*, det. I, 21; *puluva*, V, 22, al.; *suvāmikēna*, IX, 10; *pāpunēvū*, det. II, 7. — Suppressions: *ti* (*iti*, det. II, 4, 7), *pi*, *va* (*éva*), passim.

DEHLI. — Additions: *upadahēvū*, IV, 5; *vidahāmi*, VI, 6; *gē(ñ)vayā*, I, 7; *āsinavē*, II, 11, al.; *duvāḍasa*, VI, 1; *suvē*, I, 6. — Suppressions: *pi*, *ti*, *va* (*éva*), passim; *anuvēkhamānē*, VII-VIII, 2; *paṭivēkhamānē*, VI, 4, 7.

BHABRA. — Additions: *alahāmi*, 4; *abhi-khināñ*, 7; *paṇinē*, 5. — Suppressions: *ti*, 2, al.

SAHASARĀM. — Suppressions: *pi*, *ti*, passim; *va* (*éva*), 3.

RUPNĀTH. — Additions: *sumi*, 1. — Suppressions: *pi*; *ti*; *va*; *ddni*, 2; *sumi*, 1.

CONTRACTIONS. — KHĀLSI. — *A(l)u* into *ô*: *khô*, X, 28, al.; — *aya* into *é* in causals; — *ava* into *ô*: *ôlôdhana*, V, 16; VI, 18; — *ayi* into *é* in *lēkhāpēsāmi*, XIV, 19; — *a(y)ô* into *é*: *tēdasa*, V, 14; — *ya* into *i*: *palitiditu*, X, 28; *iya* into *é*: *ētakāyē*, X, 27.

DHAULI. — *A(l)u* into *ô*: *khô*, IX, 8; — *ava* into *ô*: *viyôḍhālaka*, det. I, 1; *viyôḍaditaviyē*, IX, 11; *ôlôdhana*, passim; — *avā* into *ô*, if *ahô*, IV, 13, is really equivalent to *atka vā*; — *aya* into *é*: *ujēnītē*, det. I, 23; — *ayi* into *i* in *vēditu*, det. II, 6; — *ayô* into *é*: *tēdasa*, V, 22; — *iya* into *é*: *ētaka*, passim; — *ya* into *i*: *palitijitu*, X, 15; — *va* into *ū*: *atūlanā*, det. I, 11, 12 (Jaug. °*tu*°); — *vi* into *u*: *su* (= *svid*), det. II, 4; *duāhalē*, det. I, 16.

DEHLI. — *Nigôḍhāni*, VII-VIII, 5 (*nyagrôdhā*); — *jhāpētaviyē*, V, 10; *khô*, passim *khū*, II, 12; *paliyôḍvadātha*, VII-VIII, 1; *ôlôdhana*, VII-VIII, 6; *viyôḍadisāñti*, IV, 7, 9; *su(svid)*, VII-VIII, 17, 18.

BHABRA. — *Khô*, 3; *ôvādē*, 5; *abhivādē-mānañ* (for °*āya*°), 1.

RUPNĀTH. — *Lēkhāpētaviyē*, *vivasētaviyē*, 5.

BAIRĀT. — *Ālādhētayē*, 6.

NASALISED VOWELS. — I do not attempt to point out all the instances in which the *anusvāra* has been omitted, either in negligence, or by error. They are frequent, especially at Khālsi.

KHĀLSI. — A long vowel equivalent to a nasalised one: *atapāsañḍā* (°*ḍaṇ*), XII, 32, 33; *dadatā* (°*tañ*), XII, 15; *dēvāñḍapiyē*, XII, 30, 34; *dhanmasu(su)sā* (°*sañ*), X, 27; *disā* (°*sañ*), XIV, 21; *hētā* (°*tañ*), V, 14; *kañmatalā* (°*lañ*), VI, 20; *pujā* (°*jañ*), XII, 31, 34; *punā* (= *punyañ*), IX, 26; *sañtañ*, XIV, 17 (if it is really a nom. plur.). — After Dr. Bühler's revision the only trace of a confusion between *añ* and *u* which would appear to remain is *sulchitēnā*, XIV, 17 (for *sañ*). The concordance of several versions in the spelling *supadālaya*, V, 14, renders, in this instance, the equivalence of *sañ* and *su* hardly probable.

DHAULI. — Equivalence of the long and of the nasalised vowel: *bāñbhana* and *bābhana*; *bhāvasudhī* (°*dhin*), VII, 1; *kalanītañ* (nom.

plur.), dét. I, 18; *kaṣmata*(*laṣ*), VI, 32, as against *kāmatālā*, at Jaug.; *kiṣṭ*, X, 13 (*°lūn*); *saṁbōdhi* (*°dhūn*), VIII, 4; *palatani*; (*°tā*, *°ta*); VI, 23; *sōtaviyaṇ* (Jaug. *°yā*), dét. I, 17; *vātaviyaṇ* (*°yā*), dét. I, 2; *yā* (*yaṇ*), IV, 17. — *Sanṭaṇ* (n. s. m.), VI, 30, and *vayē* (= *vayaṇ*), dét. II, 8, appear to imply the equivalence of *aṇ* and *ē*. — *u* for *aṇ* in *tēsu aṇṭānaṇ*, dét. II, 10. — The nasal is written double in *aṇṇālan-bhē*, III, 11; *saṇmyā*, IX, 8; *sukhaṇm*, dét. II, 5.

DEHLI. — *Anupaṭipatī*(*°lūn*), VII-VIII, 3; *-visati*, V, 1, 20; *saṇṭaṇ* (nom. plur.) IV, 13; *tiṇṇi* = *triṇṇi*, IV, 16; V, 12; *yā iyaṇ* (= *yaṇ idan*), VII-VIII, 7; — *kimaṇ*, VI, 5, (= *kimu*).

SAHASARĀM. — *Aṇmisaṇ*, 2; *misani*, 3 (= *°sā*); *chaṇ*, 5 (= *chā*).

(b). — Consonants.

Two peculiarities are common to all the versions, which we are now comparing. In the first place they know neither the cerebral *ṇ*, nor the palatal *ṇ̄*. They replace both by the dental *n*. There is only one solitary exception: Dh. dét. II, 6, would seem to have, according to General Cunningham's facsimile, *paṭiṇṇā*. I should be much surprised to find this reading authenticated; already, in Prinsep's time, the facsimile published by him shewed that, at this place, the stone is damaged and the reading uncertain. I am strongly tempted to believe that the real reading is *paṭiṇṇā*, as at Jaugada. As to *ṇ* Dr. Bühler states two exceptional occurrences of it, one in *khaṇasi*, Dh. dét. II, 10, the other in *savēṇā*, J. dét. II, 3. — In the second place, they have no *r*, replacing it regularly (when standing alone) by *l*. I notice only two exceptions, — at *Rāpnāth*, where, by the side of *ahālē*, 6, we read *chhavachharē*, 1, and *chiraṭhiṇka*, 4. *Samavariya* at Kh. XIII, 2, is probably a false reading.

Khālsi presents a two-fold peculiarity: the first is the use, for the sibilant, of three signs differing in unequal degrees: *Ṣ*, *Ṣ̄*, and *Ṣ̅*, of which the first is also employed on one occasion at Bairāt (*svaṇṇikūyē*). It appears to me to be certain that these signs are all, among themselves, absolute equivalents, and that they do not represent, as has been maintained, the

three sibilants of Sanskrit. I have already dealt with this question in the Introduction; and I shall return to it later on. I can, therefore, neglect its consideration here. I may remind my readers that in transliteration I represent the sign *Ṣ* by *ṣ*. — The second point concerns the use, at Khālsi, of a character *Ṣ̅* which I, at first, considered as a simple graphic variant of *Ṣ̄*. The same sign is employed twice (*vādīṇā*, *aḍhakōṣikāṇi*) at D. I pass over this difficulty here, and content myself, in order to retain consistency in transcription, with rendering the sign in question by *ṣ*, as I have hitherto done.

Simple Consonants.

Changes. — KHĀLSI. — *h* into *g* in *aṇṭiyōga*, II, 5; XIII, 4, 5.

g into *k* in *makā*, XII, 5; *aṇṭēkina*, *ibid*.

gh into *h* in *lahukā*, XI, 32, al.

ch into *chh* in *kichhi*, *passim*.

j into *d* in *palitiditu*, X, 28.

t into *ṭ* in *bhaṭaka*, XIII, 37, alias; *kaṭa*, *passim*; *maṭē*, XIII, 39 (by the side of *matē*); *paṭi*, *passim*; *usaṭēna*, X, 28, 29; *viyāpaṭa*, *passim*; *vithaṭēnā*, XIV, 18; — into *d* in *dōṣē*, VI, 19; *hidasukhdyē* = *hitasu*, V, 15.

d into *ḍ* in *hēḍisa*, VIII, 22; IX, 25 (by the side of *ēḍisa*); *duvāḍasa*, III, 7; IV, 13; — into *t* in *taiṭpayā*, VIII, 13 (P); — into *y* in *iyāṇ* (in the neuter, for *idan*), *passim*.

dh into *d* (?) in *hida*, *passim*.

bh into *h* in *hōṭi*, etc., *passim*.

y into *j* in *majulā*, I, 4; — into *v*: *vasēvu*, VII, 21 (ordinarily the termination is *ēyu*); — into *h*: *yēhaṇ*, VI, 20.

s into *h* in *ha(ṇ)chē*, IX, 26.

DEHLI. — *h* changes into *kh* in *akhakhasē*, dét. I, 22.

g into *gh* in *chaghati*, II, 11, al., if it is really equivalent to *jagṛi*, which is extremely doubtful.

ch into *j* in *ajalā*, dét. II, 7, (Jaug. has *achala*); — into *chh* in *kichhi*, *passim*.

j into *ch* in *chaghati*, loco cit.; *kamḍōcha*, V, 23.

t into *ch* in *chiṭhitu*, IV, 17; — into *ṭ* in *paṭi*, *passim*; *kaṭa*, *passim*; *viyāpaṭā*, dét. I, 15, al.; *usaṭēna*, X, 16.

th into h in *ahō* (?), IV, 13.

dh into d (?) in *hida*, passim.

bh into h in *lahēvu*, det. II, 5; *hōti*, &c., VIII, 4; *kātapuluva* IV, 14, al.

y into v in the termination *ēvu* of the 3rd pers. plur. of the potential (at Jang *ēyu*, except in *nīkhamāva*, III, 11); *āvutikē*, det. II, 8 (at Jang. *āyu*°); — into h in the 1st pers. sing. of the potential: *yēhañ*, &c.

u into m in *mayē* (= *vayañ*), det. II, 8.

JAUGADA. — k into g in *hidalōgañ palalōgañ*, (Dh.: °lōka °lōkañ), det. II, 7; *hidalōgika*° (Dh.: °ki°), det. II, 12-13.

d into t in *paṭipātayēhañ*, det. I, 5 (Dh.: *paṭivēdayēhañ*); *paṭipātayēma*, det. I, 5 (Dh.: °pāda°); *vipaṭipātayamñtañ*, det. I, 8 (Dh.: *vipaṭipādāyamñēhi*); *paṭipātayēhañ*, II, 2; *sañpaṭipātayitāē*, det. II, 16 (Dh.: °pāda°).

DEHLI. — g into gh in *chaghatūti* (??), IV, 8, 10.

gh into h in *lahu*, VII-VIII, 9.

j into ch in *chaghanñti* (??), IV, 8, 10.

ṭ into ḍ in *vaḍikā*, VII-VIII, 2.

t into ṭ in *kaṭa*, passim; *paṭi*, passim (*paṭiyāsannēsu*, VI, 5); *viyāpaṭā*, VII-VIII, 4, 5, 6; — into v in *chāvudasañ*, V, 12.

th into ṭh in *nighaṇñhēsu*, VII-VIII, 5.

d into ḍ in *duvādasa*, VI, 1; *pañnaḍasañ*, V, 12.

dh into ḍ (?) in *hida*, VII-VIII, 6, al.; — into h in *nigōhāñi*, VII-VIII, 5.

p into b in *lōbi*, VII-VIII, 10, 11; — into m in *mīna* (= *punaḥ*?), III, 18.

bh into h in *hōti*, &c., passim.

m into ph in *kaphaṭa*, V, 5; — into v in *gēvayā*, I, 7.

y into v in *āvuti*, IV, 15; termination *ēvu* of the potential; *pāpōvā*, VI, 3; — into h in the termination *ēhañ* of the 1st pers. of the potential.

s into h in *hōhañti*, VII-VIII, 4, 5, 6 (*hōsañti*, VII-VIII, 2).

BEHABRA. — k into g in *adhigichya*, 6.

bh into h in *hōsati*, 4.

SAHASARĀM. — p into v in *avaladhiyēnā*, 6; *pāvatavē*, 3.

bh into h in *hōtu*, 5.

d into ḍ in *uḍḍā*, 4.

RŪPNĀTH. — d into ḍ in *uḍḍā*, 3.

bh into h in *husu*, 2.

Additions and Suppressions. — KHĀLSI. — Loss of an initial y in: *a*, XII, 31; *añ*, IV, 12; X, 28; *ādisē*, IV, 10; *atātā*, II, 5, 6; *asā*, VII, 21; *aṭha*, II, 4; XII, 34; *āva*, IV, 12; V, 14; IX, 25, 26; *āvatake*, XIII, 39; *ē*, passim. — Addition of an initial y: *yēva*, IV, 12; XIV, 17; of a medial y: *kaligya*, XIII, 35, 36 (*kaliga*, XIII, 39); of an initial h: *hēḍisa*, VIII, 22; IX, 25; *hēta* (*atra*), IX, 24, al.; *hētā*, X, 28; *hēvañ*, passim, (*ēvañ*, II, 6); *hida*, VI, 20, al.

DHAULI. — Loss of an initial y, except in: *yasō*, X, 13; *yā*, IV, 17; *yē*, I, 8; V, 21; *yēhañ*, VI, 32; *yuj*, passim; *yōna*, V, 23; — of the syllable *ra* in *hēmēva*, det. I, 24. — Addition of an initial y in: *yēva*, IV, 17; — of a v in *vutē*, IX, 10; — of an initial h in *hēḍisa*, passim (by the side of *ēdisa*); *hēmēva*; *hēta*, XIV, 19; *hēta*(ñ), V, 21; *hēvañ*, passim (never *ēvañ*, *ēva* and never *hēva*); *hida*, passim.

DEHLI. — Loss of the initial y in: *ata*, VII-VIII, 11; *aṭha*, III, 20; IV, 10; VI, 4; *āva*, IV, 15 (*yāva*, V, 19); *ē*, V, 17; VI, 8; *ēna*, VII-VIII, 11; — of the syllable *ya* in: *ētaḍathā* (or possibly equivalent to *ētaḍathanā*?), VII-VIII, 3; — of the syllable *va* in *hēmēva*, VII-VIII, 4, al. — Addition of an initial y in *yēva*, V, 13; VII-VIII, 8 (by the side of *ēva*); — of an initial v in *vutañ*, IX, 10; — of an initial h in *hēmēva*; *hēvañ*, passim (by the side of *ēvañ*); *hida*, VII-VIII, 6, al.

BEHABRA. — Loss of the initial y. — Addition of an initial h in *hēvañ*, 3, 8.

SAHASARĀM. — Loss of an initial y in *añ*, I, 2 (*yatā*, 7). — Addition of an initial v in *vivuthā*, 7; — of an h in *hēvañ*, 1.

RŪPNĀTH. — Addition of an initial h in *h(i)ḍha*(?), 4; *hēvañ*, 1. — The initial y remains unchanged: *yāvatake*, 5; *yā*, 2.

BAIRĀT. — Initial y lost in *añ*, 3, preserved in *ya* (*yad*), 2.

Compound Consonants.

kt becomes t. Kh., Dh., D.

ky becomes kiy: (*s*)*akiyē*(?), S. 3; *sakiyē*, R. 3; *ṣvañgīkiyē*(?), B. 6.

kr becomes always k.

kv becomes kuv in *kuvāpi*, Kh. XIII, 39.

ksh becomes, at Kh., *kh*: *khudaka*, X, 28, &c.; *chh* in *chhanati*, XII, 32; — at Dh., *kh*: *khudaka*, det. II, 5, &c.; — at D., *kh*: *anuvēkhamānē*, VII-VIII, 2, &c.; *jh* in *jhāpētaviyē*, V, 10; — at Bh., *kh*: *bhikkhuniyē*, 7; — at S., *kh*: *khudakā*, 4; — at R., *kh*: *khudakā*, 3.

ksh becomes *khin* in *abhikkhinan*, Bh.

kshy becomes *kh* in *dupaṭivēkhē*, D. III, 19.

khy becomes, at Kh., *kh*: *sākhan*, XIII, 14; — at Dh., *khy*: *mōkhyamata*, det. II, 2; det. I, 3 (Jang.: *mōkhiya*^o); — at D., *kh*: *mōkhāni*, V, 20, and *khy*: *mōkhyamatē*, VI, 19.

gn becomes, at Kh., *g*: *agkāmādhāni*, IV, 10; — at Dh., *g*: *agi-*, IV, 3; and *gin*: *anwīgina*, det. II, 4.

gr becomes *g*, Kh., Dh., D.

jñ becomes *ñn* or *n*, Kh., Dh., D.

ñch becomes *ñn*, at D.: *pañnadasa*, V, 12, al.; — at S.: *pañnā* (?), 6.

ḍy becomes *ḍiy* at Kh.: *pañḍiyā*, XIII, 6; — at D.: *chaṇḍiyē*, III, 20.

ṇy becomes *niy* in *ananiya*, at Kh., VI, 20; at Dh., VI, 32; det. II, 9; — *ñn* in *hilañna*; at Kh., VIII, 23; at Dh., VIII, 5.

tk becomes *k*, D., S.

tth becomes *ṭh* in *uṭhāna*, at Kh., VI, 9, al.; at Dh., VI, 31, al.

tm becomes *t*, Kh., Dh., D.

ty becomes, at Kh., *tiy*: *apatiyē*, V, 14, &c.; remains unchanged in *nityam*, XIV, 19, if indeed we are to read thus; changes into *ch* in *nichē*, VII, 22; into *t* in *palitijitu*, X, 28; — at Dh., becomes *tiy*: *atīyāyikē*, VI, 19, &c.; changes into *ch* in *ēkachā*, I, 2 (doubtful; J. has *ēkatiyā*); *nichē*, VII, 2; changes into *t* in *palitijitu*, X, 15; — at D., becomes *ch*: *sachē*, II, 12; *pachūpagamanē*, VI, 8; *tiy* in *patiyā-saṇṇēsu*, VI, 5, which R. and M. write *patiyāsa*^o.

tr becomes everywhere *t*.

tv remains unchanged in *tadatvāyē*, at Kh. X, 27, and at Dh., X, 13; — becomes *t* at S.: *mahatātā*, 3; *satā*, 7; and at R.: *mahatātā*, 2; *sata*, 5.

ts becomes *s* at Kh.: *chikisā*, II, 5; nevertheless *chikisakichhā*, same line, appears to shew a certain hesitation between the form *chikisā* and the form *chikichhā*; *usaṭṭēna*, X, 29; — at Dh. II, 6; X, 6; — at D.: *usaṭṭēnā*, I, 5; *chh*, at R., in *āṭṭavachharē*.

tsy becomes *chh* at D., in *-machhē*, V, 4.

ddh becomes, at Kh., *dh* in *vaḍhi*, XII, 31, 34, 35, remains *dh* in *vadhī*, IV, 12, 13; — *dh*, at Dh., in *vaḍhi*, IV, 18; *vudha*, IV, 15; VIII, 4; and at D. in *vaḍhi*, passim.

dy becomes *j* (Kh., Dh., D.), except in *uyāna* (Kh., VI, 18; Dh., VI, 29) in which it becomes *y*, and at D., I, 3, in *dusampātipādayē* for *°diyē*, *°dyē*.

dr becomes everywhere *d*.

dv becomes, at Kh., *duv*: *duvāḍasa*, III, 7, &c.; — at Dh., *duv*: *duvāḍā*, det. II, 2, &c.; *v* in *anuvīgina*, det. II, 4; — at D., *duv*: *duvēhi*, VII-VIII, 8, &c.; — at S., R. and B., *d* in *jānbudipasi* (S., 2; R., 2; B., 4); and *duv* at S. in *duvē* (6).

dhy becomes, at Kh., *dhiy* in *adhiyākha*, XII, 34; — at D., *dhiy* in *avadh[ī]ya*, V, 2, 8, 13 (RM *°dhya*), *avadhiyāni*, VII-VIII, 9, &c.; *jh* in *nijhati*, VI-VIII, 8.

dhr becomes *dh*, Kh., D.

ny becomes *ñn*, Kh. Dh., D.

pt becomes *t*, Kh., Dh., D. — Appears to change into *vat* in *pāvataṭṭē* (= *prāptatē*), S., 3.

pr becomes everywhere *p*.

bāh becomes *dh*: *ladhā*, Kh., XIII, 11, &c.

br becomes *b*, Kh., Dh., D.

bhy becomes *bh*, at Kh., in *ibhēsu*, V, 15; — remains unchanged, at D., in *abhyuṇṇamāyē-haṇ*, VII-VIII, 19; *abhyuṇṇamisi*, VII-VIII, 21. — It is written *bhiy*, at Dh., in *ibhiyēsu*, V, 24; *ālabhiyisu*, 1, 3; at Kh., in *alabhiyati*, &c., 1, 3, 4.

bhr becomes *bh*, Kh., Dh.

my remains unchanged in *samyā* at Kh., IX, 25; XIII, 37; and at Dh., *saṇṇmyā*, IX, 8.

mr becomes *m̐b*, at Kh., in *taṇbapāṇṇiyā*, XIII, 6; at D., in *aṇbāvaḍikā*, VII-VIII, 2.

rg becomes everywhere *g*.

rgr becomes *gh*, at D., in *nighaṇṇhesu*, VII-VIII, 5.

rch becomes *ch*, Kh., Dh., D.

rñ becomes *ñn*, Kh., D.

rt becomes, at Kh., *t* in *nivatēti*, IX, 26; *anuvāṭaṇṭi*, XIII, 8, &c.; *ṭ*, in *anuvāṭisaṇṭi*, V, 9; *ni(va)ṭēti*, *nivaṭēya*, IX, 26; — at Dh., *t* in *anuvāṭisaṇṭi*, V, 21; *ṭ* in *anuvāṭatu*, V, 27; *kiṭi*, X, 13; — at D., *t* in *pavataṭṭēsu*, IV, 5, 13; *ṭ* in *kēvaṭa*, V, 14; *palikaṭavē*, IV, 11.

rth becomes, at Kh., *th* or *ṭh* : *atha*, IV, 12, al.; *aṭha*, VI, 17, al.; — at Dh., *th* in *athāyē*, det. I, 19, 21; det. II, 8; *ṭh* in *aṭha*, passim; — at D., *th* in *atha*, VII-VIII, 3, 10; *ṭh* in *aṭhasi*, VII-VIII, 4, al.; — at S., *ṭh* : *aṭham*, 7, al.; — at R., *ṭh* : *aṭhāya*, 3, al.

rthy becomes *thiy* at Kh. (IX, 23) and at Dh. (IX, 7), in *nīlathiyān*.

rd becomes *d*, Kh., D.

rdh becomes, at Kh., *ḍh* : *vaḍhayisaṃti*, IV, 12; *diyādḍha*, XIII, 35, &c.; *dh* in *vadhīṭē*, IV, 11 (ordinarily *vaḍhita*); — at Dh., *ḍh* : *vaḍhayisati*, IV, 16, &c.; — at D., *ḍh* : *aḍha-kōsikaṇi*, VII-VIII, 2, &c.; — at S., *dh* in *avaladhīyēnā*, 6; *ḍh* in *vaḍhisati*, 3, 6; — at R., *ḍh* : *aḍhitiyāni*, 1; *vaḍhisati*, 4; — at B., *ḍh* : *vaḍhisati*, 7, 8.

rdhy becomes, at S., *dhīy* in *avaladhīyēnā*, 6; *ḍhiya* in *diyādḍhiyān*, ibid.; — at R., *dhīy* and *ḍhiy* (same words); — at B., *ḍhiy* in *diyādḍhiyān*, 8.

rbh becomes *bh*, Kh., Dh.

rm becomes, *m*, Kh., Dh., D.

ry becomes, at Kh., *liy* in *anaṃṭaliyēnā*, VI, 19; *lay* in *supadālayē*, if we assume it to be equivalent to *supradḍryaḥ*; — at Dh., the same, VI, 31; V, 22; — *liy* at D. : *suliyikē*, VII-VIII, 10; *nīthūliyē*, III, 20, &c.; at Bh. : *ahiyavasāni*, 5; *paḥiyāyāni*, 4, 6.

rv usually becomes *v* in all texts; — *luv*, at Kh. and Dh., in *puluva*, passim.

rś becomes *s*, Kh., Dh., D.

rsh becomes usually *s* (*vasa*), Kh., Dh., D., Bh.

rshy becomes, at Kh., *chh* in *kachhāmi*, &c., VI, 18, al. (= *kar(i)shyāmi*); — at Dh., *s* in *isāya*, det. I, 10; *chh* in *kachhaṃti*, VII, 2, al.; — at D., *sy* in *isyākaḷānēna*, III, 20; *chh* in *kachhati*, II, 16, al.

rh becomes *lah*, at Kh., in *galahati*, XII, 33; at Bh., in *alahāmi*, 4.

lp becomes *p*, Kh., Dh.

ly becomes *y* in *kayāna* at Kh., Dh., D.

vy becomes, at Kh., *viy* : *migaviyā*, VIII, 22; *viyāṇjanatē*, III, 8, &c., except in *diviyāni*, IV, 10; — at Dh. and D., *viy* : *diviyāni*, Dh., IV, 3, &c.; *haṇṭaviyāni*, D., V, 15, &c.; *ichhitayē*, at Jaug., det. I, 5, should, probably, be restored *ichhita(vi)yē*; — at R. *viy* (*lēkhāpē-*

taviyē, 4), except in *vyuṭhēnā*, 5; — at B., *y* in *āldūhētayē*, 6.

vr becomes *v*, Kh., Dh., D.

sch becomes *chh*, Kh., Dh.

sn becomes *sin* in *pasinē*, at Bh. (5).

śy becomes *siy*, at Kh., in *paṭivēsiyēnā*, IX, 25; at J. det. I, 6, we have *ālasīyēna*.

śr becomes *s*, Kh., Dh., D., R.

śv becomes at D., *s* in *sēta*, V, 6; *suṃ* in *suṃē*, I, 6.

shk becomes *k*, at Kh., in *dukālē*, V, 13; — at Dh., in the same word, V, 20, al.

shkr becomes *kh* : *nikhamati*, Kh., III, 7, al., *nikhami*, Dh., VIII, 4, al.

shṭ becomes *ṭh*, Kh., Dh., D., R., and *th*, at S., in *vivūkhā*, 7.

shīh becomes, at Kh., *ṭh* : *adhīṭhāndīyē*, V, 15; *sēṭhē*, IV, 12; — at Dh., *th* : *adhīṭhānē*, V, 26; *adhīṭhāndīyē*, V, 23; *nīthūliyēna*, det. I, 11; *ṭh* in *chīṭhitu*, IV, 17; — at D., *ṭh*, *nīṭhūliyē*, III, 20.

shp becomes, at Kh. (IX, 26) and at Dh. (IX, 10) *ph*, in *nīphati*; — *p*, at D. in *chaturpadē*, V, 7.

shy becomes, at Kh., *s* : *ālabhiyisaṃti*, I, 4, &c.; — at Dh., *s* : *ānapayisati*, III, 11, &c.; *h* in *ēkatha*, det. I, 17; det. II, 9 (Jaug., in both cases : *ēsatha*); — at D., *s* : *abhiyūṇa-misati*, VII-VIII, 21, &c.; *h* in *hōhaṃti*, VII-VIII, 4, 5, 6 (by the side of *hōsaṃti*), and, to add it at once, although here *h* = *sy*. in *dāhaṃti*, IV, 18; — at Bh., *s* : *upatisa*, 5.

sk becomes, at Kh., *k* in *agikamdhāni*, IV, 10; — at Dh., *kh* : *agikamdhāni*, IV, 3.

st becomes everywhere *th*.

sth becomes, at Kh., *th* in *chilathitika*, V, 17; *gahathāni*, XII, 31; *ṭh* in *chilathitika*, VI, 20; — at Dh., *ṭh* in *chilathitika*, V, 27; VI, 33; — at D., *th* in *chilathitika*, II, 15 (AR °ṭhr°); *thambhāni*, VII-VIII, 2; *ṭh* in *chilathitika*, VII-VIII, 11; *anaṭhika*, V, 4; — at Bh., *ṭh* in *chilathitika*, 4; — at S., the same, 5; — at R., *th* in *silāthambha*, 5; *ṭh* in *chilathitika*, 4. — *tsth* becomes *th* in *utthi* — (= *pāli utthahati*), Jaug., det. I, 7.

sn becomes *sin* in *sinēhē*, at Kh., XIII, 33.

sm becomes, at Kh., *s* in locatives in *asi*; — at Dh., remains unchanged in *akasmā*, det. I, 9, 20, 21; becomes *s* in the locative in *asi*; *ph*

in *aphē*, det. I, 7, &c.; *tuphē*, det. I, 4, &c.; — at D., *s* in the locative in *asi*; — at S., *sum* in *sumi*, I, *s* in the locative; — at R., *sum* in *sumi*, I; *ph* in *tup(h)aka(n)*, 5; *s* in the locative; — at B., *s* in the locative in *asi*.

sy becomes, at Kh., *s* in the genitive in *asa*; *siy* in *siyā*, XII, 31, al.; — at Dh., *s* in the genitive in *asa*; *siy* in *siyā*, passim; *ālasiyēna*, det. I, 11; — at D., *sa* in the genitive; *siy* in *siyā*, IV, 15; VII-VIII, 11; — at R., *siy* in *siyā*, 3.

sr becomes *s*, Kh., Dh.; *sin*, at D., in *āsinavē* II, 11, al.

sv becomes, at Kh., *s* in *sakam*, VI, 18; *svu* in *svāmikēna*, IX, 25; remains unchanged in *svagan*, VI, 20; — at Dh., remains unchanged: *asvāsandāyē*, det. II, 8, 10; *svagā*, passim; becomes *svu* in *svāmikēna*, IX, 10; at D., remains unchanged: *asvasā*, V, 18; *asvathā*, IV, 13; — at S., *su* in *suaga*, 4; — at D., remains unchanged in *svagē*, 3; — at B., remains unchanged in *svaṅgiṭiyē*, 6.

hm becomes, at Kh., *nhh* in *bamhkhana*, passim; once *nhm* in *bamhkhane*, XIII, 39; — at Dh., *bh*, *nhh* in *bābhana*, IV, 12, &c.; *bamhkhana*, IV, 15, &c.; — at D., *bh*: *bābhana*, VII-VIII, 4, 8.

(c). — Sandhi.

KHĀLSI.

a + a gives *ā*; but *atatā*; II, 5, 6; *dhammanusathī*, III, 7, al.; &c.

a + i gives *ē* in *chēmē*, V, 17; *i* in *banhbanibhēsu*, V, 15.

a + u gives *ō*: *manusōpagāni*, II, 5; *pajōpadāyē*, IX, 24.

a + ē gives *ē*: *chēva*, IX, 25; *yēnēsa*, XIII, 38.

i + a gives *i* in *itihidhiyakha*, XII, 34.

u + u gives *ū* in *pasōpagāni*, II, 5.

ē + a gives *ē* in *ēyan* (?) (= *ē ayan*), V, 15; *ētāyēhāyē*, VI, 20; *ā* in *ētāyāhāyē*, XII, 34.

nh + a vowel changes to *m* in *tam ēva*, XIII, 15; *tānam ēva*, XIII, 38; *hēvam ēvā*, II, 6; XIII, 6.

DHAULI.

a + a gives *ā* (but *atata*, II, 7; *dhammanusathī*, VIII, 5, &c.); or remains uncombined in: *maḥāpāyē*, det. I, 15 (Jang., *maḥāpāyē*); *maḥāpāyē*, det. I, 16; *désadyutikē*; Jang., det. II, 12. (Dha. *désadyutikē*).

a + i gives *i* in *bamhbanibhiyēsu*, V, 24.

a + u gives *ō* in *munisōpagāni*, II, 7; *pajōpadāyē*, IX, 26 (J.: *pajupadāyē*).

a + ē gives *ē* in *chēva*, IV, 16.

i + i gives *i* in *nitiyan* (??), det. I, 12 (Jang. *nitiyan*), and in *lōṇimē* (Jang., det. I, 3), if we must really understand *kinti imē*.

u + u would seem to give *ū* in *pasuōpagāni* (so also at J.) (= *pasu(h)ōpagāni* ?), II, 7. But most probably we should take as starting point a form *ōpaga* equivalent to *upaga*.

Before *ti* (= *iti*), a final vowel is lengthened: *patipādāyēmāti*, det. I, 10; *paṭipajēyāti*, XIV, 19; *mamāti*, det. I, 12; *alādḥayaṇṭitī*, VI, 33; *aphēsūtī*, det. II, 4, &c.

d final remains unchanged in *tadōpayā*, VIII, 5.

nh before a vowel changes to *m*, or is even written *nm* in *hēdisanmēva*, det. I, 24; *sukhanmēva*, det. II, 5.

DEHLI.

a + a gives *ā*, or remains uncombined as in *°vasaabhisa*, VI, I (RM *°sābhi*), al.

a + u gives *ō*: *chhāyōpagāni*, VII-VIII, 2.

a + ē gives *ē* in *chēva*, VII-VIII, 4.

i + a gives *i* in *dupaṭivēkhē*, III, 19; *paṭivēkhāmi*, VI, 4, 7.

u + a gives *u* in *anuvēkhāmānē*, VII-VIII, 2.

u + u gives *u* in *anupōsathan*, V, 13.

e + i gives *i*, in *hiyan*, II, 11, if my explanation is right.

Before *ti*, a final short vowel is sometimes lengthened: *nāmāti*, III, 19; *kachhatīti*, II, 16 (RM *°ti*); *ālādḥayēvīti*, IV, 19, &c. (but *vaḍhisati ti*, VII-VIII, 7; *hōtu ti*, VII-VIII, 10).

d final remains unchanged in *tadathā*, VII-VIII, 3.

d final remains unchanged in *saḍvīsati*, I, 1 al.; assimilated in *sanmāsikē*, V, 9.

nh final remains unchanged, or is even doubled before a vowel; *hēvanmēva*, VI, 6; *ētamēva*, VII-VIII, 2; *kayānanmēva*, III, 17 (A *°namē*).

BHABRA.

Lāghulōvādē, 6; *saṅghasitī*, 2; *h(ō)satīti*, 4 *hēvanmēvā*, 8.

SAHASARĀM.

Sādḥikē, 2.

RŪPNĀTH.

Sātīlēka.

MISCELLANEA.

AN EARLY KADAMBA ROCK INSCRIPTION.

The following rock-cut inscription, in two lines, was discovered by Mr Govind Gangadhar Deshpande, at the falls of the Ghaṭaprabhā near Koṇṇūr, in the Gôkāk Tālukā, Belgaum District. I transcribe it from estampages made by him; a note on them indicates that the inscription is "on the face of the cliff on the right of the falls."

TEXT.

- 1 Pitri¹-bhaktas=śuchir=ddaksha[h] satv-
ōtsāha-pratāpavān [1 *]
- 2 Kadambanām kulē jātaḥ śrīmān=Dāmō-
darō prīpāh [11 *]

TRANSLATION.

Dutiful to (his) father, pure, intelligent, possessed of courage and energy and vigour, — (such is) the illustrious king Dāmōdara, born in the family of the Kadambas.

This record gives us a new name in the Early Kadamba family; and may perhaps be taken to indicate a point to the north-east to which the territories of the kings of that line extended. Dāmōdara is probably to be allotted to a period not long after the last of the connected names given in my *Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts*, p. 9.

Another point of interest in this record, is, that the characters, which belong to the southern class of alphabets, are of the same "box-headed" type with those used in the Ēran inscription of Samudragupta and the Nachnē-kt-talāī and Siwanī Vākātaka records (*Gupta Inscriptions*, pp. 18, 233, 243). The size of the letters varies from 2½" to 4"; the largest *akṣhara* not formed entirely between the lines of writing, — *vis.*, the *śrī* of *śrīmān*, line 2, — is about ten inches from top to bottom. Line 1 is about 4' 4" long; and line 2, about two inches longer. It should be noted how the *visarga* is assimilated to the following sibilant in *°bhaktas=śuchir°*, line 1; but the same is not done at the ends of the first and third quarters of the whole verse.

Near the above record, there occurs twice the name of *śrī-Dāmōdara*: once in "box-headed" characters of precisely the same type; and once in the characters customarily used in the Early and Western Chalukya records.

J. F. FLEET.

A FOLKTALE ABOUT THE KOMATIS.

The Kōmatīs are generally the merchant class of Southern India. Economy and frugality are their characteristic traits. If a person goes to a Kōmatī *bāndr* to purchase anything, the merchant is all politeness to him and entreats him to take a seat. This politeness is partly superstitious, and leads to one curious practice. Supposing a purchaser asks for *pappu* (or *dāl*) and the Kōmatī has none with him he will never say *lēdhu* (no), but will answer "*Swāmi, uppu undhi*, Sir, there is salt." "No" is considered to be a word of ill-omen and is never heard from a Kōmatī's mouth. In giving an answer to do duty for "no," a Kōmatī will usually try to rhyme to the purchaser's remarks.

To the popular mind the word *Kōmatī*, or rather *Kumati*, taken to be *ku* (good) + *mati* (intellect), means a man of sense or a clever man.

In this connection the following story about the Kōmatīs is told:—

"Once upon a time a Pāṇḍiyan king had a new silver goblet of enormous size made for the use of the palace, and he superstitiously believed that its first contents should not be of the ordinary kind. So in view of making a special use of it, he ordered his minister to publish it abroad that all the subjects of his kingdom were to put into the vessel a *chembu* full of milk from each house. The frugal Kōmatīs, hearing of this, thought each within himself, 'Oh! when the king has ordered such a large quantity, and all will bring milk, it will be enough for me to take a *chembu* full of water, as a little water poured into such a large quantity of milk will not change its colour. It will not be known that I poured in only water, and I shall pass off as having given my tribute.' In this way all the Kōmatīs brought each a *chembu* full of water, and no one of them told the other of the deceit he was about to practise. Now, it so happened that the Kōmatīs were the first to enter the palace, while they thought that the people of other castes had come and gone. The vessel was placed behind a screen, so that no one might cast the evil eye on it and the Kōmatīs were let in one by one to do honour to it. This they did in all haste and each returned with great joy in the success of his deceit. Thus there was nothing but water in the vessel. Now it had been arranged that the king was to be the first person to see the contents of his new vessel, and when he went to the apartment where the vessel was kept and saw its contents, he was

¹ Metre, Ślōka (Anuṣṭubh).

thunderstruck to see only water, and was greatly disappointed. He became enraged at the impudence of the Kōmatis and directed his minister to punish them severely. However the ready-witted Kōmatis came forward with all presence of mind and cried out, 'O gracious king! appease thy anger and kindly listen to what we have to say.'

We each brought a *chembu*-ful of water to find out how many *chembu*-fuls your Highness' precious vessel contained. Now that we have taken the measurement, we will forthwith fetch the quantity of milk required.' The king was extremely pleased to hear this and sent them away."

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

SIMILAR PASSAGES IN THE BHĀGAVATA-PURĀNA AND THE BHĀGAVADGĪTĀ.

While recently reading through the *Bhāgavata-Purāna*, I came across several verses which are almost word for word the same as are found in the *Bhagavadgītā*. Others again, though not

word for word similar, yet are sufficiently so to prove that the author of the *Bhāgavata-Purāna* was familiar with the *Bhagavadgītā*, and used it freely in the composition of his work. I give below, in parallel columns, a few of these similar verses :—

Bhāgavata-Purāna.

नहि कश्चित्क्षणमपि जातु तिष्ठत्यकर्मकृत् ॥
कार्यते ह्यवशः कर्म गुणैः स्वाभाविकैर्बलात् ॥
6 ; 1, 53.

यद्यदाचरति श्रेयानितरस्तत्तदीहते ॥
स यत्प्रमाणं कुरुते लोकस्तदनुवर्तते ॥
6 ; 2, 4.

यदा यदेहं धर्मस्य क्षयो वृद्धिश्च पाप्मनः ॥
तदा तु भगवानीदं आत्मानं सृजते हरिः ॥
9 ; 24, 56.

संस्थापनाय धर्मस्य प्रथमायेतरस्य च ॥
अवतीर्णो हि भगवानंशेन जगदीश्वरः ॥
10 ; 33, 27.

पञ्च पुष्पं फलं तोषं यो मे भक्त्या प्रयच्छति ॥
तदहं भक्त्युपहृतमभ्यामि प्रयतात्मनः ॥
10 ; 81, 4.

Bhagavadgītā.

नहि कश्चित्क्षणमपि जातु तिष्ठत्यकर्मकृत् ॥
कार्यते ह्यवशः कर्म सर्वः प्रकृतिजैर्गुणैः ॥
3 ; 5.

यद्यदाचरति श्रेष्ठस्तत्तदेवेतरो जनः ॥
स यत्प्रमाणं कुरुते लोकस्तदनुवर्तते ॥
3 ; 21.

यदा यदा हि धर्मस्य ग्लानिर्भवति भारत ॥
अभ्युत्थानमधर्मस्य तदात्मानं तृणाम्यहम् ॥
4 ; 7.

परित्राणाय साधूनां विनाशाय च दुष्कृताम् ॥
धर्मसंस्थापनार्थाय संभवामि युगे युगे ॥
4 ; 8.

पञ्च पुष्पं फलं तोषं यो मे भक्त्या प्रयच्छति ॥
तदहं भक्त्युपहृतमभ्यामि प्रयतात्मनः ॥
9 ; 26.

J. E. ABBOTT.

SANSKRIT WORDS IN THE BURMESE LANGUAGE¹.

It is generally stated by those who can speak with authority on the subject, that the Burmese derived their culture, religion, and letters from India through the Talaings, and that Burmese civilization dates from the conquest of Thatôn by Anorat'āzō² (Pāli Anuruddha) in 1058 A. D. This statement appears to be vitiated to some extent by the fact of the existence in the Burmese language of a number of Sanskrit words, both derived and naturalized, importing not only terms in religion and mythology, but also those relating to social life. The language of Magadha,

in which the *Tripitaka* and its commentaries are written, being the language of their religion, one would naturally expect that the Burmese would borrow from Pāli rather than from Sanskrit. The appended list may, in some degree, serve to corroborate the above statement.

The following remarkable passage, extracted from the preface of Trenckner's edition of the *Milindapañho*, will be of interest in the present connection, as shewing the use by the Burmese of the Sanskrit, rather than the Pāli, spelling of certain Indian words :—

"It is, however, but fair to add that, on closer

¹ [In explanation of this note it must be remarked that in Burmese pronunciation consonants are seldom aspirated. Where they are the aspirate is shown by '—'. The consonants shown in brackets, as (k), (t), denote the common Burmese trick of barely sounding certain

finals in syllables. In Burmese *ky*, *kr* are sounded *ch* : *gy*, *gr* as *j*. In every case in the table the pronunciation of *th* is as in *thin*. The Burmese *t* and *d* are practically the English sound of these consonants.—ED.]

² [o represents the sound of *aw*, as in *awful*.—ED.]

acquaintance, certain spellings (found in Burmese MSS.) are met with, which strike our attention by agreeing closer with Sanskrit in etymology than the corresponding Sinhalese forms. Now the Burmese

can scarcely be suspected of introducing Sanskritisms,⁸ and it is rather to be presumed that, in such cases, they have been the sole preservers of the true and original Pāli form."

Burmese.		Sanskrit.	Pāli.
Spelling.	Pronunciation.		
1. Adhvan	Adun	Adhvan	Addhaniya
2. Amrôt ⁴	Amyaik	Amṛita	Amata
3. Bhissik ⁵	Bé(k)thék	Abhishéka	Abhiséka
4. Chakrá ⁶	Se(t)chá	Chakra	Chakka
5. Chakravālā	Se(t)chawālā	Chakravāla	Chakkavāla
6. Chakravatē ³	Se(t)chawadē ³	Chakravartin	Chakkavati
7. Chankram	Zinjan	Chankram	Chankama
8. Drap	Dya(t)	Dravya	Dabba
9. Groh	Jo	Graha	Gaha
10. Kambhā ⁷	Kabā	Kalpa	Kappa
11. Mrikkasō	Myé(k)katho	Mṛigaśiras	Migasira
12. Parissad	Payé(k)that	Parishad	Parisā
13. Phusha	P'ô(k)thā	Pushya	Phussa
14. Prakatē	Pyagadē	Prakati	Pakati
15. Prassad	Pya(t)that	Prāsāda	Pāsāda
16. Prittā ⁸	Péktā	Prēta	Pēta
17. Rasē ⁹	Yathē	Rishi	Isi
18. Samuddarā ¹⁰	Thamō(k)dayā	Samudra	Samudda
19. Sāriputtarā ¹¹	Thāyipō(k)tayā	Sāriputra	Sāriputta
20. Sattavā	Thadawā	Sattva	Satta
21. Sikrā ¹²	Thajā ³	Sakra	Sakka

TAW SEIN KO.

KALLIL, A FAMOUS SHRINE IN SOUTHERN INDIA.

Kallil, which means literally 'a stone,' is the name of a famous pagoda situate in the Kannuth-naḍ Tālukā of North Travancore, about sixteen

miles east by north of Tripontera, the residence of the Cochin royal family itself, and distant about six miles east of the British port of Cochin.

Members of the small colony of Baniāns (Jain Vais̥yas) settled in Native Cochin frequent

³ [It is by no means yet proved, however, that the Burmese had no learned communications with India direct in days gone by.—ED.]

⁴ This word being a synonym for Nirvāna, one would naturally expect a derivative from Pāli rather than from Sanskrit.

⁵ The prefix *a* of Sanskrit and Pāli derivatives is generally elided in Burmese. cf. *sankhyē* for *asankhyēya*; *dhupati* for *adhipati*.

⁶ The conjunct consonant *r* is sounded as *r* in the Arakanese dialect, but is always softened into *y* by the Burmese. The *ch* of Sanskrit and Pāli is always pronounced *s* by the Burmese.

⁷ The conjunct consonant *l*, as in *sallāpa*, *allāpa* (pronounced *sanlāpa*, *anlāpa*), is always pronounced like *anusvāra* in Burmese. In ancient books the word *lambhā* (for *kalpa*) is written *kamphā*.

⁸ The vowel *i* is pronounced as *ē* when followed by a consonant.

⁹ It is a remarkable fact that the Talaings, through whom the Burmese are supposed to have derived their

knowledge of Buddhism, have naturalized the Pāli word *is̥i*, in its proper form, while the Burmese have adopted a Sanskrit derivative from *rishi*.

¹⁰ The pronunciation of *dra* is phonetically impossible to a Burman: hence the insertion of an augmentative *a* between *d* and *r*. See a similar argument in the cases of *tra* and *tva* in the two next words.

¹¹ The Sanskrit form of the name of the chief disciple of Gautama Buddha is worthy of notice.

¹² A fanciful etymology has been invented to derive Śakra from *thi*, to know, and *kyi*?, to hear: knowing and hearing of events that happen in the world of men being one of the attributes of the Recording Angel of Buddhism. [In Upper Burma I have known the word spelt (*sakya*) *the(t)cha*, though pronounced correctly *thajā*, and the folk etymology of it given as *that*, to descend, and (*kyā*) *cha*, to fall, i.e., he who descends and falls, because the Burmese Recording Angel descends to the earth during the great annual festival of the New Year.—ED.]

this shrine, and believe that he who proceeds thither a sufficiently large number of times obtains salvation. The pagoda is on the top of a precipitous rock, a small portion of which alone touches the earth, affording a beautiful and wonderful scene to anyone who goes up. A Pisharôti (high-caste Sûdra temple-servant by profession), who lives close by, has the sole management of the pagoda, although he is looked down upon, because he has not a large family growing up round him. Siva and Bhâgavati are both enshrined here. Of recent years a figure of Brahmâ is said to have sprung up of itself on the top of the rock.

There is a superstition that if Bhâgavati's image is not the first to be seen on going up to worship, the pilgrim is sure to die within eight days thereafter, generally by a sudden attack of fever. Several instances in point are cited by the villagers. Pilgrims, therefore, take the necessary precautions to avoid so sudden a termination of their earthly existence.

In Malabar the solar (or Tamil) New Year's Day (recurring on 12th April) is called Vishu, and is observed as a day of rejoicing and festivity. Early on the morning of this day it is the duty of every devout Hindu to see the village deity the first of all things. For this purpose many lie down to sleep the previous night within the pagoda precincts, and people, who sleep in their own houses in the neighbourhood, are escorted thither by those who have been the first to make their obeisance. The good or bad fortunes of the whole year appear to them to turn on this matter. Many go to see the image with their eyes shut, and sometimes bound with a cloth, — a common custom during visits to particular images.

The evening *pûjâ* to the goddess is offered at the Pisharôti's house, and not at the pagoda on the top of the hill, which is not approached by human beings in the afternoon, or after the midday service is over. The tradition is that the goddess was once coming from Muhambi (a celebrated shrine in the Western Ghâts in South Kanara) playing with two pieces of stone and tossing them up and down as she was moving along, with a worshipper in front of her. All of a sudden, as they came near this spot, the man, — according, it is said, to a vow the goddess had taken, — sat down. There are two rocks on the hill, which appear to touch the ground beneath them without actually doing so, and these are said to be the two stones used by the goddess.

Offerings are occasionally made to raise a wall round the pagoda to prevent crows, &c., from

coming into it; but the rock always gradually rises, so as to throw down the building. The old men of the village are always willing to certify to this.

N. SUNKUNI WARIAR.

ANTIQUITIES OF MALABAR: PARAL.

Mr. R. Sewell, *Lists of Madras Antiquities* (Vol. I., p. 255), says —

"Five miles south by west of Trichûr — on a rock, here, is an inscription with some large foot-prints cut in bas-relief and other sculptures."

I beg to subjoin some notes on the place.

The small pagoda here is known as *Pârola* (*lit.* on a rock, as it actually is). It is dedicated to Vishnu. It belonged to Mayaya Mangalam Namburi (author of the *Naishada Champu*), on the extinction of whose family the rights in it devolved on Tarananellurir Namburi. The pagoda was built about 1866 by the present Uaya Râja of Cochin.

On the northern side of the pagoda are five *thirthams* or sacred pools, and one on the western side. These *thirthams* are named after the Pândavas, who are said to have lived here for some time.

Dharmaputra's is circular in shape. That of Bhîmasêna is shaped like his *gada* (instrument). That of Arjuna is shaped like his bow. Those of Nakula and Sahadêva are smaller in size, and are the only ones in which there is no water during the hottest weather. The water in that of Pañchâlî (the consort of the Pândavas) is reddish, and said to be so because she bathed in it to purify herself after her courses.

On the rock may be traced lines drawn for playing at dice. Here is a small shrine dedicated to Ganapâti.

About half a mile to the south is the celebrated pagoda of Ayyappan or Shasthavu, the village deity, nearly opposite which is the fifth milestone from Trichûr. It is owned by a large number of Namburi houses in the district.

The offerings most pleasing to the deity are cakes, *kadali* plantains, *rasayams*, *nei* (ghî) and *pal* (milk).

The god is noted for giving to dumb worshippers perfection in the art of letters, and there are traditions of several men having become famous after a continued worship here. The young Brâhmans of the neighbourhood make it a point, before starting in life, to worship here for terms varying from seven days to one year.

N. SUNKUNI WARIAR.

THE AMGACHHI COPPER-PLATE GRANT OF VIGRAHAPALADEVA III.

BY PROFESSOR F. KIELHOEN, C.I.E.; GÖTTINGEN.

THE plate which contains this inscription was found, in 1806, at *Amgachhi* in the Dinājpur District of the Bengal Province, by a peasant, digging earth for the repair of a road near his cottage;¹ and it was forwarded to the Asiatic Society of Bengal, in whose Library it is still deposited. An account of the inscription was given by H. T. Colebrooke, in the *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. IX. pp. 434-38, and republished in his *Miscellaneous Essays*, Vol. II. pp. 279-82. And a tentative reading of the text was first published by Dr. Hoernle, in the *Centenary Review of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Part ii. pp. 210-13, and reprinted, after revision, *ante*, Vol. XIV. pp. 166-68. For my own account of this inscription I have used an excellent ink-impression, made and supplied to me by Mr. Fleet.

The plate is a single one, measuring about $12\frac{3}{4}$ " broad by $14\frac{1}{2}$ " high, and surmounted by a highly wrought ornament of brass, fixed on the upper part, and advanced some distance on the plate so as to occasion a considerable break in the upper lines. It contains 49 lines of writing, 33 of which are on the front, and 16 on the back of the plate.—The writing has suffered much from corrosion, especially on the proper right side of the front and on the corresponding part of the back, where many *aksharas* are more or less illegible.—The size of the letters is about $\frac{1}{4}$ ".—The characters may be described as Nāgarī, of about the 11th century A.D., but as a special feature of the alphabet employed it may be pointed out that *r*, preceding another consonant, is often written by a short line, sideways attached to the right side of the *akshara* of which it forms part, not by the ordinary superscript sign, — a peculiarity which the inscription shares with others written in Eastern India.—The language is Sanskrit. From about the middle of line 20 to the beginning of line 43 the inscription is in prose; the rest, excepting the introductory *om svasti*, is in verse.—As regards orthography, the imperfect state of the plate prevents me from saying more than that *b* is throughout denoted by the sign for *v*.

The inscription is one of the devout worshipper of Sugata, or Buddha, the *Paramēśvara Paramabhaṭṭāraka* and *Mahārājādhirāja*, the illustrious *Vigrahapālādēva*, who meditated on the feet of the *Mahārājādhirāja*, the illustrious *Nayapālādēva* (lines 23-24); and both in the arrangement of the matter and in its wording it follows closely the Bhāgalpur grant of *Nārāyaṇapālādēva*, published *ante*, Vol. XV. pp. 305-7. After the words *om svasti*, it contains (in lines 1-20) fourteen verses on the genealogy of *Vigrahapāla*, the text of which will be given in full below. In the prose portion which follows (lines 20-42) the king — from his camp of victory pitched at a place which was not *Mudgagiri*, but which is spoken of exactly as *Mudgagiri* is in the Bhāgalpur plate, — informs the people and officials concerned that, in order to please the holy Buddha (*bhagavantam Vu(bu)ddha-bhaṭṭārakam = udīśya*, line 36), after bathing in the Ganges on the occasion of a lunar eclipse (line 40), he has granted to a *Brāhmaṇ* some land in the *Kōṭivarsha vishaya* of the *Puṇḍravardhana bhukti* (line 24); and he directs the people to make over to the donee whatever may be due to him under this grant. This prose part closes (in line 42) with the date, probably 'the year 13² on the 9th day of Chaitra.' Lines 42-48 contain a number of benedictive and imprecatory verses. Another verse (in lines 48-49) gave the name of the *dāta*, appointed by *Vigrahapāla* for this grant. And the inscription (in line 49) closes with a verse according to which the plate was engraved by the artizan *Saśidēva*, a son of *Mahādhara*³, who, or whose ancestors, had come from the village of *Pōsali*.

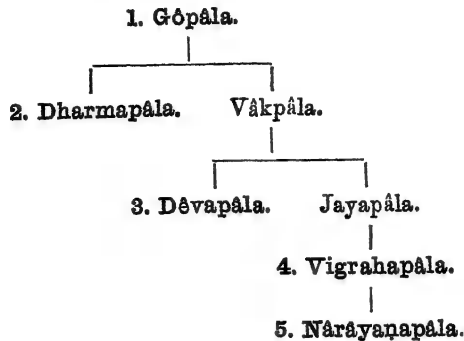
What is of real and, indeed, of very great value in this inscription, — the latest copper-plate grant hitherto discovered of the so-called *Pāla* dynasty of Bengal, — are the fourteen verses with which it opens. Of these, verses 1-5 are identical with the verses 1, 2, 4, 5

¹ See *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. IX. p. 434.

² I am unable to make out with certainty from the ink-impression whether the year is 12 or 13.

³ This *Mahādhara* engraved the Dinājpur plate of *Mahāpālādēva* which will be mentioned below.

and 7, and the sixth verse is only a slightly altered version of verse 10, of the Bhāgalpur plate of Nārāyaṇapāla, *ante*, Vol. XV. p. 305. And the genealogy, furnished by these six verses, undoubtedly is as Dr. Hultzsch, *ib.* p. 304, has put it :—



The verses 7-11 it would have been impossible to make out fully from this Āmgāchhī plate alone. But fortunately the very same verses also occur in a copper-plate grant of Mahipālādēva, which a few years ago was discovered at Dinājpur, and of which rubbings have been supplied to me by Dr. Hoernle.⁴ And although in the Dinājpur plate they are in general even less legible than in the Āmgāchhī plate, a continued study and comparison of both plates has enabled me to restore the text in a manner which I believe to be substantially correct. The Dinājpur plate also contains verse 14 of the Āmgāchhī plate, but places it immediately before the verse referring to Mahipālādēva, between verses 10 and 11 of the Āmgāchhī plate. For the decipherment of verses 12 and 13 (lines 16-19) of the present grant I have had no help beyond the ink-impression.

Now, having (in verse 6) brought the genealogy down to Nārāyaṇa, our inscription, according to my text, proceeds as follows :—

(Line 11). ‘And his son was the protector of the middle world, the illustrious Rajyapāla, whose fame is proclaimed by tanks as deep as the sea, and by temples the walls of which equal the noblest mountains.

As the store of light proceeds from the eastern mountain, so sprang from that king of the east a son, born from Bhāgyadēvi, a daughter of the high-crowned Tuṅga,⁵ the moon of the Rāshṭrakūṭa family, — the illustrious Gōpālādēva, who was long the sole lord of the earth, gaily clad by the four oceans, lustrous with many precious stones.

Him, richly endowed with the qualities of a king, the Fortune of regal power — energy, good counsel, and majesty, — worshipped as her lord, dear and attached to him, though he served⁶ the earth like a fellow-wife.

From him sprang in the course of time, augmenting the innumerable blessings of his parent, Vighrapālādēva, who, dear to all, stainless and versed in every art, when he arose, alleviated like the moon⁷ the distress of the world.

From him sprang the protector of the earth, the illustrious Mahipālādēva. Having in the pride of his arm slain in battle all opponents, and having obtained his father's kingdom which had been snatched away by people who had no claim to it, he put down his lotus-foot on the heads of princes.

⁴ My reading of the text of this inscription will be published in the *Journal Beng. As. Soc.*

⁵ The words *bhāgyadēvi* and *tuṅga* of the original text need not, perhaps, necessarily be taken as proper names; but there can be no doubt that the author, by the words *tuṅgasy-ottuṅga-maulī*, wishes to suggest the name of the *tuṅga* king of whom he is speaking.

⁶ The reading of the Dinājpur plate is here slightly different.

⁷ The epithet, applied to the king, would also be applicable to the moon,

From him, in consequence of his religious merits, was born the fortunate prince **Nayapāla**. Renouncing the attachment to sin, putting down his foot on the heads of princes, eagerly fulfilling all desires, free from mental blindness, beloved by his subjects, and the one home of affection, — he was like the sun which, when it rises from the eastern mountain, moves away from the night, touches with its rays the tops of mountains, opens up quickly all the quarters, drives away darkness, and is pleasant and red.

From him is born the illustrious prince **Vigrahapālādēva**, full of majesty, eagerly gazed at by the good, always anxious to worship Smara's enemy, expert in battle even more than Hari, a god of death for the clan of his enemies, and a supporter of the four castes who pleases the world with the abundance of his bright fame.⁸

When the huge elephants of his army had drunk pure water in the water-abounding eastern land, and had roamed about at will in the sandal-forests at the foot of the Malaya range, they like clouds settled down on the ridges of the snowy mountain, having cooled the trees with showers of drizzling rain.⁹

Our **Āmgāchhī** plate, then, clearly furnishes the following line of the so-called **Pāla** kings :—

1. **Gōpāla I.**
2. His son **Dharmapāla**. (According to the Mungir plate he married a **Rāshtrakūṭa** princess.¹⁰ And according to the **Bhāgalpur** plate he conquered **Indrarāja** of **Mahōḍaya** or **Kanauj**, and gave the sovereignty of **Kanauj** to **Chakrāyudha**. See *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 188.)
3. His nephew **Dēvapāla**; (in his Mungir plate, which is dated in the year 33 of his reign, described as the son of **Dharmapāla**.)
4. His nephew **Vigrahapāla I**; (married, according to the **Bhāgalpur** plate, **Lajjā**, a **Haihaya** princess.)
5. His son **Nārāyaṇapāla**. (His **Bhāgalpur** plate is dated in the year 17 of his reign.)
6. His son **Rājyapāla**; (married **Bhāgyadēvī**, a daughter of the **Rāshtrakūṭa** **Tuṅga** perhaps to be identified with **Jagattuṅga II**, who ruled in the first quarter of the 10th century A. D.)
7. His son **Gōpāla II**.
8. His son **Vigrahapāla II**.
9. His son **Mahipāla**. (He issued the **Dinājpur** copper-plate grant; and the **Sārnaṭh** inscription, published *ante*, Vol. XVI. p. 140, furnishes for him the date V. 1083 = A. D. 1026.)
10. His son **Nayapāla**. (A Cambridge MS. is dated in the 14th year and a **Gayā** inscription in the 15th year of his reign. See Bendall's *Catalogue*, p. 175, and Introduction; p. iii. and Sir A. Cunningham's *Archæol. Survey of India*, Vol. III. Plate xxxvii.)
11. His son **Vigrahapāla III**; (issued this **Āmgāchhī** copper-plate grant which is dated in the 12th or 13th year of his reign).

As indicated above, this statement of the relationship of the **Pāla** kings does not, so far as regards **Dēvapāla**, agree with the account furnished by the Mungir copper-plate, which distinctly makes that king the son of **Dharmapāla**, and his queen a **Rāshtrakūṭa** princess. This difference I am unable to reconcile. For the rest, I have only to add that all these kings undoubtedly were Buddhists; and that the figures given under 9, 10, and 11, prove this **Āmgāchhī** plate of **Vigrahapāla III**. to have been issued after A. D. 1053.

⁸ My translation very imperfectly expresses the meaning of this verse. It may be sufficient to say that the king is represented as the substratum of four colours (*chāturvarnya*), inasmuch as he was yellow (*pīta*), red (*rakta*), green (*harita*), and black (*ālaka*).

⁹ *vis.*, with the water emitted from their trunks.

¹⁰ Was she a daughter of **Śrī-Vallabha**? i. e., **Gōvinda III**. (who ruled in the first quarter of the 9th century A.D.)? The lithograph has *śrī-Paravallasya duhituh*.

TEXT, LINES 1-20.¹¹

- 1 Ōm¹² svasti || Maitrīm¹³ kā[runya]-ratna-pramudita-hridayaḥ prēyasīm sandadhānaḥ
 2 [sa]myak=samvō(mbō)[dhi-vi]dyā-sarid-amala-[jala-kshā]lit-ājñāna-pa-
 3 nkaḥ | jitvā yaḥ kāma-kāri-prabhavam=abhibhavam śāsvatī[m]
 4 prāpa śānti[m] sa śrīmāml=lōkanāthō jayati Da[sa]va(ba)lō snyaś=cha
 5 [Gōpālādē]vaḥ || Lakshmi¹⁴-janma-nikētanam samakarō vōdhu[m] kshamaḥ kshma-
 bharam paksha-chohēda-bhayād=upasthitavatām=ēk-āśrayō bhūbhṛit[ā]m |
 [mary]ādā-paripālan-aika-nirataḥ sau(śau)ry[ā]-
 6 [layō] smād=abhūd=du[gdh-āmbhōdhi-vilāsa-hāsi-mahimā śrī-Dharmapālō nripaḥ ||
 Rāmasy=ēva gṛhita-satya-tapasas=tasya=ānurūpō guṇaiḥ Saumitrēr=udapādi
 tulya-
 7 [mahimā Vākpa]la-[nām=ānujaḥ | yaḥ śrīmān=naya-vikram-aika-vasatir=bhrātuh
 sthitaḥ śāsanē śūnyāḥ śatru-patākinibhir=akarōd=ek-ātapattrā dīśaḥ [11*]
 Tasmād¹⁵=U-
 8 [pēndra-charitair=jagatī]m=punānaḥ putrō va(ba)bhūva vijayī Jayapāla-nāmā |
 dharma-dvishā[m] śamayitā yudhi Dēvapālō yaḥ pūrvajē¹⁶ bhuvana-rājya-
 sukhāny=avai(nai)shīt || Śrīmā¹⁷
 9 [n=Vigra]hapālas=tat-sūnur=Ajātaśatnur=iva jātaḥ | śatru-vanitā-prasādha-vilōpi-
 vimal-āsi-jala-dhārāḥ || Dikpālaih¹⁸ kshiti-pālanāya dadhataḥ dēh[ā] vibha-
 10 [ktān=gu]ṇān¹⁹ śrīmantaḥ janayāmv(ba)bhūva tanayam Nārāyaṇam sa
 prabhuḥ | yaḥ kshōṇipatibhiḥ śirōmaṇi-ruch=āśliṣṭ-āṅgh[r]i-pīṭh-ōpala[m]
 nyāy-ōpāttam=alamchakāra charitaiḥ
 11 [svai]r=ēva dharm-āsanam || Tōyāśayair²⁰=jaladhi-mūla-gabbhira-garbhair=d[ā]vālayaiś=
 cha kulabhūva(dha)ra-tulya-kakshaiḥ | vikhyāta-kīrttir=abhavat=tanayaś=cha
 tasya śrī-Rājyapāla i-
 12 ti [madhya]ma-lōka-pālāḥ || Tasmāt²¹=pūrv-kshiti-dhrān=nidhir=iva mahasā[m] Rāsh-
 trakūt-ānvay-ēndōs=Tuṅgasy=ōttuṅga-maulēr=duhitari tanayō Bhāgyadēvyam
 prasūtaḥ [1*] śrīmā-
 13 [n=Gōpā]lādēvas=chirataṛam=avanēr=ēkapatnyā iv=aikō bhartt=ābhūn=naika-ratna-
 dyuti-khachita-chatuh-sindhu-chitr-āmsukāyāḥ || Ya[m]²² svāmīna[m] rāja-
 guṇair=anūnam=āśēvatē chā-
 14 [ruta]r=ānuraktā | utsāha-mantra-prabhu-śakti-lakshmiḥ prithvīm sapatnīm=iva śīla-
 yanta[m] || Tasmād²³=va(ba)bhūva savitur=vasu-kōṭi-vardhī kālēna chandra
 iva Vighrahapālādēva-
 15 [h | viśva?]r=priyēṇa vimalēna kalāmayēna yēn=ōditēna dalitō bhuvanasya tāpaḥ ||
 Hata²⁴=sakala-vipakshaḥ saṅgarē vā(bā)hu-darpād=anadhikṛita-viluptam rājyam=
 āśādy pitryam [1*]
 16 [nihita]-charaṇa-padmo bhūbhṛitām mūrdhni tasmād=abhavad=avanipālāḥ śrī-Mahi-
 pālādēvaḥ || Tyajan²⁵=dōshāsaṅga[m] śirasi kṛita-pādaḥ kshiti-bhṛitām vitan-
 van sarvv-āśāḥ prasabha-
 17 [m=uda]yādrēr=iva raviḥ [1*] hata-dhvāntaḥ smigdha-prakṛtir=anurāg-ai(?)ka-vasatis=
 tatō dhanyaḥ puṇyair=ajani Nayapālō narapatiḥ || Pītaḥ²⁶ sajjana-
 lē(lō)chanaiḥ Smara-ripōḥ pūj-ā-

¹¹ From an impression supplied by Mr. Fleet.¹² Expressed by a symbol. This symbol for ōm is apparently preceded by the akshara ni, which is also put in the upper proper left corner of the plate. In the Bhāgalpur plate of Nārāyaṇapāla the same akshara ni is engraved in the upper right and left corners of the plate, above the first line. And in the Dnājpur plate of Mahipāla it stands at the beginning and end of the first line. I am unable to explain the meaning of this akshara.¹³ Metre, Sragdhara.¹⁴ Metre, Vasantatilaka.¹⁵ Metre, Śārdūlavikṛita.¹⁶ Metre, Vasantatilaka.¹⁷ Metre, Mahā.¹⁸ Originally pūrvajē, but altered to pūrvajā.¹⁹ Read guṇān-śrīmantaḥ. The Bhāgalpur plate has vibhaktā śrīyaḥ.²⁰ Metre, Sragdhara.²¹ Metre, Śikharinī.²² Metre, Sragdhara.²³ Metre, Śārdūlavikṛita; and of the next verse.²⁴ Metre, Āryā.²⁵ Metre, Indravajrā.²⁶ Metre, Vasantatilaka.

- 18 [nuraktaḥ sadā]²⁷ saṃgrāmē [chaturō] sḍhika[ñ=cha] Haritaḥ kāla[h*] kulē
vidvishām | chāturvvarṇya-samāśrayaḥ sitayasa(sa)[h-puñjai]r=jjagad=rañjayan²⁷
śrīmad-Vigrahapālādēva-nṛpati-
- 19 [r=jajñē tatō dhāma-bhṛit?]²⁸ || Dēśē²⁸ prāchi prachura-payasi svachchham=āpiya
tōyaṃ svairam bhrāntvā tad=anu Malay-ḍpatyakā-chandanēshu | kṛitvā sām-
drais=tarushu jaḍatām śīkarair=a-
- 20 [bhra-tulyāḥ Prālē]y-ādrēḥ kaṭakam=abhajan=yasya sēnā-gajendrāḥ ||

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.

(Continued from page 92.)

2. — INFLEXION.

(a). — Gender.

I do not mention here the use of the nominative in *ś* for the neuter, although, strictly speaking, it should, I consider, be dealt with under this head (cf. at Kh., VI, 9, *kataviyaṃ lōkahitē*, &c.).

KHĀLSI. — *chat(u)li* (nom. masc.), XIII, 5; *hathini* (nom. plur.), IV, 10; *yutāni* (acc. plur. masc.), III, 8. Also note the use of *iyaṃ* for the nom. sing. neut. (IV, 12, al.).

DEHULI. — *yutāni*, III, 11; *hathini*, IV, 13; *iyaṃ* in the neuter, passim; *ēsa* . . . *hēdisaṃ*, IX, 8; *dhaṇmachalanam imam*, IV, 16. To the masculine *imē jātd*, Dh., det. I, 12, corresponds, at Jaugada, the neuter *ētāni jātdni*, Dh., det. I, 15, *mahāpāyē* is in agreement with the feminine *asaṃpāṭipati*.

DEHLI. — *anusathini*, VII-VIII, 20, 1; *pulisāni*, IV, 6; *ēsa* (III, 19, 21, al.) and *iyaṃ* (III, 17, 18, al.), in the neuter; *nigōhāni*, VII-VIII, 2.

BHABRA. — *paliyāyāni*, 6; *ś* (nom. sing. neuter), 2.

SAHASARĀM. — *iyaṃ* for the neuter, 4, 6, and the masculine, 5.

RŪPNĀTH. — *Kāla* employed in the feminine: *imāya kāldya*, locative, 2; *iyaṃ* in the masculine, 3, 4.

(b). — Declension of Consonantal Bases.

Here again we only find fragmentary remains.

Bases in AN. — Kh. : *lājā*, passim; *lājīnē*; *lājind*; nom. plur. *lājānē*, XIII, 5, al.; *lājānō*

(P), II, 5. — Dh. : *lājā*, *lājīnē*, *lājind*, passim; nom. plur. *lājānē*, II, 6; VIII, 3; *atānaṃ*, det. II, 7; *atanē*, det. I, 25; *kaṇṇmanē*, III, 10 (by the side of the nom. *kaṇṇmē*, and of the gen. *kaṇṇmasa*). — D. : *lājā*, passim; nom. plur. *lājānē*, VII-VIII, 12, 15, by the side of *lājīhi*, VII-VIII, 3, with transition into the *i*-declension; *atanā*, VI, 8.

Bases in ANT. — Kh. : the noms. sing. *saṃtē*, VIII, 22; *kalaṃtē*, XII, 33, have passed over into the vocalic declension; of the consonantal declension there only remains the nom. plur. *tiḥaṃtē*, IV, 12. — Dh. : *mahaṃtē* (nom. sing.) has passed over into the declension in *a*. — D. : the nom. plur. *saṃtaṃ* (*ciā*), IV, 13, is surely to be referred to the vocalic declension, which is doubtful for *anupaṭipajamtaṃ*, VII-VIII, 10. — Bh. : *bhagavatā*, 3, 6.

Bases in AR(RI). — At Kh., except in the nominative plural *natūlē*, IV, 11; V, 13, all have passed over into the declension in *i*: *bhātind*, IX, 25; *bhātinam*, V, 16; *pitind*, IX, 25; *pitisu*, III, 8; IV, 11. — Dh. : nom. sing. *pitā*, det. II, 7; the nom. plur. *nāti*, V, 21, must be referred to the declension in *i*, like all the other forms: *bhātind*, IX, 9; *bhātinam*, V, 25; *pitind*, IX, 9; *pitisu*, III, 10, al. But, along with the base *māti*, IV, 15, we find the base *pitv*, IV, 15. — At D., the one example which we possess, *pitisu*, VII-VIII, 8, shews the change into the *i*-declension. The nom. *apakaṭā*, VI, 3, is at least very doubtful.

Bases in AS. — Kh. : *yasō* (acc. sing.), X, 27, 28. On the other hand, VIII, 23, we have *bhuyē*. — Dh. : *yasō*, X, 13, and *bhuyē*, VII-VIII, 9.

²⁷ These signs of punctuation are superfluous.²⁸ Metre, Mandākrāntā.

Bases in IN. — At Kh., we have both the consonantal form *piyadasinē*, *piyadasinā*, and the vocalic form *piyadasisā*, I, 2, 3, &c. — At Dh., along with the nom. *piyadasī* (never °s), we only find the consonantal declension *piyadasinē*, *piyadasinā*. — At D., we have only the nom. *piyadasi*, written always with the short final vowel, while A has usually *piyadasī*. — Bh.: *piyadasi*, 1.

(c). — Declension of vocalic bases.

Bases in A. — Masculines. — Nom. sing. everywhere ē. Kh. has two noms. in ō : *kēla-laputō* and *sātiyaputō*, II, 4. — Dat. sing. in āyē, everywhere except at R., which has only the two datives *ētāya aṭhāya*, and once at M. in *aṭhāya*, corresponding to D., II, 15. — Loc. sing. in *asi*. *Amnē bhāgē* (Kh., VIII, 23; Dh., VIII, 5) and *paṭṭopadāyē* (Kh., IX, 24; Dh., IX, 6) appear to be locs. in ē; at Jaug, det. II, 16, *khanōkhanasi* of Dh. is represented by *khanē sam'am*, which can hardly be taken as anything but a double locative, *samtam* being equivalent to *samtē* (?); Kh. appears to read *vijayansi*, XII, 11. — Abl. sing. in ā in *maha-tatā*, R., II, 5, 3. — The acc. plur. would be in ā in *bahukā dōsā*, Kh., I, 2, if comparison with G. and J. did not lead us to consider that this spelling represents the singular *bahukam posam*. In Dh. det. I, 18; Dr. Bühler appears to take *tise* (which is his reading for my *tisena*) as an acc. plur.

Neuters. — Nominatives singular everywhere in ē. Kh., however, has the following nominatives in am: *am*, IV, 12; XII, 31; *anusāsanam*, IV, 12; *bāḍham*, VII, 22; XII, 32; XIII, 36; *dānam*, III, 8; *galumatatalam*, XIII, 36; *kaṭaviam* (*lōkahitē*), VI, 19; *lēkhitam*, IV, 13; *madarom*, (?), XIII, 2; *nityam*, (?), XIV, 19; *palam*, V, 14; *yam*, VIII, 23. — Dh.: *bāḍham*, VII, 2; *duvālā* (= °lam?), det. II, 2; (Jaug., I, 2, *duvālam*; II, 2, *duvālē*); *vutam*, IX, 10; *hēdisam*, IX, 10; det. I, 29. — In det. I, 14, I doubt very much the nom. *samṭapipāda* = °dam of Dr. Bühler. — D.: *bāḍham*, III, 21; VII-VIII, 1. — S.: *bāḍham*, 1. — Acc. sing. in am everywhere. But at Kh.: *satabhāgē*, *sahasabhāgē*, XIII, 39; *dānē*, XII, 31; *viyasanē*, XII, 38; *nichē*, VIII, 22. — Nom. and acc. plur. in āni. But at Kh.: *āsanā*, IV, 9; *kālāpitā*, *lōpāpitā*, II, 6; *savā*, XII, 31; at Dh.: *kālāpitā*, II, 7.

Feminines. — Dative sing. in āyē; D.: *vihimsāyē*, V, 10; VII-VIII, 9, &c. — Instr. sing., Kh.: *madhuliāyē*, XIV, 20; *pujāyē*, XII, 31; *vividhaya*, XII, 31 (read *vividhāyē*); Dh.: *dav(ā)yē*, det. I, 9; *isāya*, det. I, 10; *tūlanāya*, det. I, 11 (Jaug. in āyē); D.: *agāyā*, I, 3 (RM °ya); *agāya*, I, 4 (M °yam); *anulu*, *pāyā*, VII-VIII, 13, 16, 18; *avihimsāyē*, VII-VIII, 9; *kāmutāyā*, I, 3 (ARM °ya); *palikkhāyā*, I, 4 (ARM °ya); *pūjāyā*, VI, 8 (RM °ya); *vividhāya*, VI, 8; *vividhāyā*, VII-VIII, 3; *susūsāyā*, I, 4 (RM °ya). — Abl. sing., D.: *vihimsāyē*, II, 13. — Loc. sing., Kh.: *samtīlanāyē*, *pujāyē*, VI, 19; Dh.: *samtīlanāya*, VI, 31 (Jaug. has *samtīlanāyā*, which should probably be read: °nāyā); *palisāya*, VI, 30. D.: *samtīlikāyē*, V, 20; *aṭhamāpakhāyē*, V, 15, 18; *chāvudāsāyē*, V, 15, &c.; *tisāyam*, V, 11 (*tisāyē*, V, 15, 18). — Nom. plur., Dh.: *paṭā*, V, 17; *janā*, IX, 24; Bh.: *gāthā*, 5; *upāsikā*, 8.

Bases in I. — Neuters. — Nom. plur., Dh.: *hathīni*, IV, 3. D.: *āsinavagāmīni*, III, 20; *anusathīni*, VII-VIII, 20, 1.

Feminines. — Nom. sing., Kh.: in ī; D h.; in ī, except *ahīni*, IV, 18; *ālādhi*, det. I, 15, 16; *anusathī*, I, 4, 14; VIII, 5; *apavīyati*, III, 11; *asamṭapīpati*, IV, 12; det. I, 5; *lipi*, I, 1, 4; det. I, 19; det. II, 9, 10 (Jaug. °pī); *dhiti*, det. II, 6; D.: in ī, except *ālādhi*, VII-VIII, 10; *libi*, VII-VIII, 10, 11; *lipi*, I, 2; II, 15; IV, 2; *dhāti*, IV, 11; *paṭīpati*, VII-VIII, 7; *vaḍhi*, VII-VIII, 8, 9; *vidhi*, I, 9. — Dative sing., Kh.: *vadhīyā*, V, 15. D., in iyē: *anupāṭīpati*, VII-VIII, 7, &c. — Instr. sing., Kh.: in iyā; but *anusathīyē*, IV, 10. Dh. in iyā; but *anāvūtiya*, det. I, 11 (Jaug. °tiyē). D., iyā, as *anusathīyā*, I, 5 (RM °ya), &c. — Abl. sing., Kh.: *samṭapamniyā*, XIII, 6. Dh.: *nīpāthīyā*, IX, 10. — Loc. sing., Dh.: *puthavīyam*, V, 26; *tōsaliyam*, det. I, 1; II, 1. D.: *chātumāsīyē*, V, 15; *puṣamāsīyam*, V, 11. — Nom. plur., Bh.: *bhikkhuniyē*, 7. — Gen. plur., Kh.: *nātinam*, IV, 9, 10; *bhaginīnam*, V, 10. Dh., *bhaginīnam*, V, 25; *nātinam* (?), V, 26. D.: *dēvinam*, VII-VIII, 6. — Loc. plur., Dh.: *nātisū*, IV, 11, al. D.: *nātisū*, VI, 5; *chātumāsīsū*, V, 11, 16.

Bases in U. — Masculines. — Nom. sing., D.: *sādhā*, II, 12 (ARM °dhu). — Gen. plur., Kh.: *gulunam*, IX, 25. Dh.: *gulūnam*, IX, 9,

— Loc. plur., D.: *gulusu*, VII-VIII, 8; *bahūsu*, IV, 3. — Nom. plur., D.: *bahunē*, VII-VIII, 1.

Neuters. — Nom. acc. sing., Kh.: *bahu*, IX, 24, al.; *sādhu*, III, 8, al. Dh.: *sādhu*, III, 11, al. — Nom. plur., Kh.: *bahuni*, IV, 9, al. Dh.: *bahūni*, IV, 12; *bahuni*, I, 3. D.: *bahūni*, II, 14 (R °hu°). — Abl. plur., Kh.: *bahūhi*, IV, 10. Dh.: *bahūhi*, IV, 14. — Loc. plur., Dh.: *bahūsu*, det. I, 4. D.: *bahūsu*, IV, 3.

Feminines. — Nom. sing., Kh.: *sādhu*, III, 7, 8; IV, 12. Dh. III, 10, 11; IV, 18. — Loc. sing., D.: *punāvāsune*, V, 16.

(d). — Declension of Pronouns.

Demonstratives, &c.

anya. — Kh.: *aññē*, nom. sing. neuter, IV, 11, al.; *aññamanasā*, gen. sing., XII, 33; *aññāyē*, dative sing., IX, 24, al.; *aññē*, loc. sing., VIII, 23; *aññē*, nom. plur. masc., II, 5, al.; *aññāni*, nom. plur. neuter, passim. — Dh.: *aññē*, nom. masc. sing., det. I, 9; *aññē*, nom. sing. neuter, IX, 9; *aññē*, loc. sing., VIII, 5; *aññē*, nom. plur. masc., V, 23; *aññēsu*, loc. plur., V, 26. — D. *aññē*, nom. plur. masc., VII-VIII, 6, al.; *aññāni*, neuter, V, 14, al.; *aññānān*, gen. plur., VII-VIII, 6.

ima. — Kh.: *iyāñ*, nom. masc., V, 16; *iyāñ*, nom. fem., passim; *iyāñ*, nom. neuter, IV, 12; III, 7; VI, 21; IX, 25, 26; XII, 31, 35; XIII, 36; *imañ*, nom. neuter (?), IX, 26; *imañ*, acc. sing., IV, 11, 12; *imasā*, gen. sing., IV, 13; *imīsā*, gen. masc., IV, 12; *imāyē*, dative; *imē*, nom. plur. masc., XIII, 38; fem. (*paṇā*), V, 17. — Dh.: *iyāñ*, nom. masc., V, 26; det. I, 7, 8 (?); *iyāñ*, nom. fem., passim; *iyāñ*, nom. neuter, III, 6; IV, 8; VI, 32, 34; *imañ*, acc., IV, 16; V, 17; *imasa*, gen. masc., IV, 18; *imāyē*, dative masc., V, 26; fem., III, 16; *imēna*, instr., IX, 12; *imē*, nom. plur. masc., V, 26; *imēhi*, instr. plur., det. I, 10. — D.: *iyāñ*, nom. masc. II, 11 (?); nom. fem., I, 15, al.; neuter, III, 17, 18, 21, 22; VI, 8, 9, 10; VII-VIII, 7; *imañ*, acc., VII-VIII, 3; *imāni*, nom. plur. neuter, VII-VIII, 9, al. — S.: *iyāñ*, nom. sing. masc. (*aṭhē*), 5; neuter (*savam*, *phalē*), 3, 4, 6. — R.: *iyāñ*, nom. sing. masc. (*athē*, *pakamē*), 3, 4; *imāya*, loc. fem. sing., 2.

ekatya. — Kh.: *ēkatiyā*, nom. plur. masc., I, 2. — Dh.: *ēkachā* (?), nom. plur. masc., I, 2.

ēta. — Kh.: *ēsa*, nom. masc. sing., XIII, 38;

ēśē, VI, 19, al.; *ēśē*, nom. sing. neuter, IV, 12; IX, 25; XIII, 38; *ētasa*, gen.; *ētāyē*, dat., passim; *ētānān*, gen. plur., XIII, 38. — Dh.: *ēsa*, nom. sing. masc. (?), IV, 15; VIII, 5, al.; neuter, IX, 8, 9; det. I, 3; det. II, 2; *ēta*, acc. sing. neuter, IX, 7; *ētañ*, acc. sing. masc. and neuter, det. I, 15, 16, 22, 25; *ētasa*, *ētasi*, *ētāyē*, passim; *ētē*, nom. plur. masc., det. I, 11. — D.: *ēsa*, nom. sing. masc., VII-VIII, 3, 7, 9; fem. I, 5, 9 (ARM °sā); neuter, III, 19, 21; VII-VIII, 4, 11, 14, 20; *ēśā*, nom. sing. neuter, IV, 14 (RM °sa); *ētañ*, acc. sing. neuter, passim; *ētāyē*, *ētēna*; *ētē*; *ētāni*; *ētēsu*. — S.: *ētāyē*, 4; *ētēna*, 2. — R.: *ēsa* (*phalē*), 2; *ētāya*, dative masc., 3; *ētiñd*, instr. masc., 5.

ka. — Kh.: *kēchi*, nom. sing. masc., XII, 32; *kichhi*, nom. sing. neuter, passim. — Dh.: *kēchha*, nom. sing. masc., det. I, 7 (Jaug., *kēchā*, i. e. *kēchi*); *kichhi*, nom. neuter, VI, 30, al. — D.: *kina* (°nā), instr. sing., VII-VIII, 17, 18.

ta. — Kh.: *sa*, nom. masc. sing., XII, 33; XIII, 3; *sē*, ibid., passim; *sā*, nom. fem. sing., XIII, 11, 12; *tā*, ibid., VIII, 4; *sē*, nom. sing. neuter, IX, 26, employed as *taḍ*, used as a conjunction passim (to *sē* of Dh., det. I, 14, corresponds *tañ* at Jaug.); *ta*, nom. sing. neuter, X, 28; *tañ*, id., IX, 25; *tā*, id., used as conjunction, V, 13; *tañ*, acc.; *tāyē*, VI, 19; *tēna*; *tē*, nom. plur. masc.; *tānān*, gen. plur., XIII, 38; *tēsa* (ñ), ibid., XIII, 4, 37; *tēhi*. — Dh.: *sē*, nom. sing. masc., V, 21; det. I, 13, al.; neuter, IX, 8, 10 (conjunction); IX, 9; *tañ* (conjunction), V, 20; *tā*, nom. sing. fem., VIII, 4; *tañ*, acc. sing. neuter, det. I, 2, al.; *tasa*, *tēna*, *tasi*; *tē*, nom. plur. masc.; *sē*, id., V, 24, 25; *tāni*, neuter; *tēsa* (read *tēsāñ*), gen. plur., det. II, 8, 10; *tīnāñ* (read *tānāñ*), id., VIII, 3. — D.: *sē*, nom. sing. masc., VII-VIII, 9, al.; neuter (conjunction) VI, 13; VII-VIII, 10, 17; *tā*, nom. sing. neuter (conjunction), VII-VIII, 3; *tañ*, acc., VI, 3, al.; *tēna*, VII-VIII, 7; *tē*, nom. plur. masc., VII-VIII, 1, al.; *sē*, id., VII-VIII, 4, 6; *tānāñ*, gen. plur., IV, 17; *tēsāñ*, id., IV, 3 (RM °sāñ); *tēsu*, VII-VIII, 5. — Bh.: *sa*, nom. sing. masc., 3. — S.: *sē*, nom. sing. neuter (conjunction), 4. — R.: *tē*, nom. plur. masc., 2.

ya. — Kh.: *ē*, nom. sing. masc., V, 16, al. (*yē*, V, 14); neuter, X, 28; XIII, 36; *yē*, nom. sing. neuter, VI, 18; XIII, 35; *a*, XII, 31; *añ*, IV, 12; X, 28; *yāñ*, VI, 18, 20; XII, 35; *asā*,

gen. sing. masc., VII, 21; *yēna*, XIII, 38; *yē*, nom. plur. masc., IX, 25; *yā*, id., XII, 34; *yēsān*, gen. plur., XIII, 38; *yēsu*, loc., XIII, 37. — Dh.: *ē*, nom. sing. masc., V, 2, al.; *yē*, V, 21; det. I, 8; *ā*, fem., det. II, 6; *ē*, neuter, det. II, 5, al.; *an*, VI, 30, 32, al.; *yā* (neut.), IV, 17; *asa*, gen. masc., VII, 2; *ēna*, instr., det. II, 9, al.; *yē*, nom. plur. masc., V, 20; *ē*, V, 23, al.; *āni*, neuter, II, 7. — D.: *ē*, nom. plur. masc., VI, 8; *yē*, II, 16, al.; *yā*, fem., I, 9, al.; *yē*, neuter, VII-VIII, 9; *yā* (neuter), VII-VIII, 7; *yēna*, instr., IV, 12, al.; *ēna*, VII-VIII, 11; *yē*, nom. plur. masc., VII-VIII, 11; *yāni*, neuter, VII-VIII, 7, al. — Bh.: *ē*, nom. sing. masc., 5; neuter, 2. — S.: *an*, sing. neuter, 1, 2. — B.: *ya*, sing. neuter, 2; *an*, 3,

sarva. — Kh.: *savē*, nom. sing. neuter, XIV, 18; *savan*, acc. masc. and neuter; passim; *savē*, nom. plur. masc., VII, 21; *savēsu*, loc., V, 16. — Dh.: *savē*, nom. sing. masc. det. I, 4; neuter, XIV, 17; *savan*, acc.; *savasa*, *savēna*, passim; *savē*, nom. plur. masc., VII, 1; *savēsu*. — D.: *savasi*, loc. sing., VII-VIII, 6; *savēsu*, loc. plur., VII-VIII, 5. — Bh.: *savē*, nom. sing. neuter, 3.

Personal Pronouns.

1st person. — Kh.: *hakan*, nom., VI, 18, 20; *mama*, gen., passim; *mē*, gen., passim; *mamayā*, instr., V, 13, 14; VI, 7, 19; *mē*, instr., III, 7; *mī*, the same, XIV, 19. — Dh.: *hakan*, nom., VI, 29, 32, al.; *mama*, gen., passim; *mē*, the same, V, 10, al.; *mamayā*, instr., VI, 28; *mamayē*, the same, det. II, 4 (Jaug.: *mamiyāyē*); *mayē*, nom. plur., det. II, 8; *majhan*, the same, det. I, 10; *aphē*, acc. det. II, 7 (Jaug.: *aphēni*); *nē*, II, 5; *aphākan*, gen. det. II, 5, 7 (Jaug.: *nē*); *aphēsu*, loc., det. II, 4. — D.: *hakan*, III, 21; *man*, acc., IV, 8, 9; *mama*, gen., VII-VIII, 6, al.; *mē*, I, 7, al.; *mamayā*, instr., VII-VIII, 3; *mamiyā*, VII-VIII, 7. — Bh.: *hakan*, 4; *humā*, gen., 2; *hamiyāyē*, instr., 3.

2nd person. — Dh.: *tuphē*, nom. acc. plur., det. I, 4, al.; Jaug., det. II, 8 (twice) 11, reads not *tuphē*, but *tuphēni*; *tuphāka(n)*, gen. det. I, 13; *tuphēhi*, instr., det. I, 3, 10; *tuphēsu*, loc., det. II, 2. — Bh.: *vē*, instr. plur., 2. — R.: *tupaka* (read *tuphākan*), gen. plur., 5.

(e). — Declension of Numerals.

KEHLI. — *ānē*, nom. masc., I, 4; II, 5;

tinī, nom. neuter, I, 3, 4; *chatalī* (read °*tu*°), nom. masc., XIII, 5; *panchasu*, loc., III, 7.

DHAULI. — *ēkēna*, det. I, 18; det. II, 10; *tinīni*, nom. neuter, det. I, 4, 24; *panchasu*, det. I, 21.

DEHLI. — *duvēhi*, instr., VII-VIII, 8; *tāsu*, loc. fem., V, 11, 16; *tinīni*, nom. neuter, IV, 16; V, 12.

SAHASARĀM. — *duvē*, nom. 6.

3. — CONJUGATION.

(a). — Verbal Bases.

I only note modifications, which, as compared with Sanskrit, are not of a purely phonetical and mechanical character.

KEHLI. — Simple bases: *kalēti* V, 13, al.; *apakalēti*, *upakalēti*, XIII, 32; *chhanati*, XII, 32; *dakhati*, I, 2, al.; *pāpunāti*, XIII, 38; *upahaniti*, XII, 33, is the only example of the preservation of the consonantal conjugation; *vijnamanē*, XIII, 36; *vijinitu*, ibid.; *pajōhī-taviyē*, I, 1; *punāti*, X, 32, seems to me to be very doubtful. — Causals: *vaḍhiyati*, XII, 32; *vaḍhiyisati*, IV, 11, for °*ḍha*°; *ayi*, contracted to *ē* in *lēkhāpēśāmi*, XIV, 19; the formative *aya* is retained in the participle, in *ānapayitē*, VI, 19; weakening of the vowel of the base: *likhāpitā*, XIV, 19. — Passives: *ālabbhiyanti*, *ālabbhiy-santi*, *ālabbhiyisu*, 1, 3, 4.

DHAULI. — Simple bases: *anusāsāmi*, det. II, 6; *chīhītu* (**tishhīhitvā*), III, 7; *dakhati*, det. I, 2, al. and *dēkhati*, det. I, 7, al.; *kalēti*, V, 20, al.; *kalāmi*, VI, 29; *kalati*, det. I, 23; *kalanti*, det. I, 26; *pāpunātha*, det. I, 6, al.; *pajō* [*hītaviyē*], I, 1. — Causals: *vēditu* (= *vēdayitu*), det. II, 6. — Passives: *ālabbhiyisanti*, I, 4.

DEHLI. — Simple bases: *anugahinēnu*, IV, 6; *anusisāmi*, VII-VIII, 21; *upadahēnu*, VI, 5; *vidahāmi*, VI, 6; participle retaining the formative: *sukhayitē*, VII-VIII, 3. — Causals: *ē* for *ayi* in *jhāpēstaviyē*, V, 10 (RM °*pay*°); weakening of the base vowel in *ānapitāni*, VIII, 1; *nijhapa-yati*, IV, 7; *likhāpitā*, passim; *likhāpāpitā*, VII-VIII, 10; *mandīti*, for *mānayati*, det. I, 7, is to me very doubtful. — Passives: *khādiyati*, V, 7.

BHABRA. — Causals: *likhāpayāmi*, 8.

SAHASARĀM. — Causals: *likhāpayatha*, 8, 7.

RŪPNĀTH. — Simple bases: *pāpōtavē*, 2. — Causals: *lēkhāpēstaviyē*, 4.

BAIRĀT. — Causal: *āl(ā)dhētayē*, 6.

(b). — Terminations.

Present. — The only trace of the medial termination occurs in Dh., X, 13, if the reading *manmaté* is really certain; even in the passive we have *ālabhiyanti*, &c., Kh., I, 3. — I note at S. and R., the form *sumi* of the 1st person of *as*. — It is a question if at Dh., det. I, 23, 26, the forms *kalati*, *kalanti* (cf. *kalāmi*, VI, 29) do not represent the subjunctive.

Imperative. — No medial terminations. The second person plural ends in *ta* in *dekhata*, Dh., det. I, 7 (Jaug. *dēkhatha*), 14; in *tha* in *chaghatha*, Dh., det. I, 19; det. II, 11; in *paṭiyōvadātha*, D., VII-VIII, 1; *likhāpayatha*, S., 7, 8.

Potential. — 1st pers. sing. in *ēham*, at Kh., Dh., D., *ēyam*, at Bh. (*disēyam*, 3). — 3rd pers. sing., Kh.: *paṭipajēyā*, XIV, 20; *siyā*, passim, perhaps *siyāti* (?), X, 28. Dh.: *paṭipajēya*, XIV, 19; *ugachh(ē)*, det. I, 13 (Jaug. *uthi(hē)*, *uthāyē* according to Dr. Bühler); *huvēya*, X, 15; *siyā*, passim. D.: *anupaṭipajēyā*, VII-VIII, 17, *vadhēyā*, VII-VIII, 3, 16, 18; *pāpōvā*, VII, 3; *siyā*, VII-VIII, 11; *siya*, IV, 15. R.: *siyā*, 3. — 1st pers. plur. in *ēma*. Kh., Dh. — 3rd pers. plur., Kh.: *havēyu*, XII, 34; *sususeyu*, XII, 33; *vasēvu*, VII, 21. Jaugada, except in *nikhamāvū*, III, 11, and perhaps *va(s)ē(v)u* VII, 1, which is mutilated, forms on the contrary everywhere the 3rd pers. plur. in *ēyu*: *yuyēyū* (ti), det. I, 3; det. II, 4, 14; *hēyū* (ti), det. I, 6; det. II, 6; *pāpunēyu*, det. II, 5, 9; *asvasēyu*, det. II, 6; *lahēyu*, det. II, 6. Dh.: in *ēvu*: *ālādha yēvū* (ti), det. II, 6; *vasēvu*, VII, 1, &c.; III, 10, *nikhamāvū*. D.: in *ēvu*: *anugahinēvu*, IV, 6, &c., Bh.: *upadhālayēyu*, 7; *sunēyu*, 7.

Past. — The perfect remains unchanged in *āha* (Kh. always *āhā*, except III, 6; Dh. always *āhā*; D. 3 times *āha*; Bh. *āhā*). The imperfect has survived in the 3rd pers. plur. *huvam*, Dh., VIII, 3. — Aorist, 3rd pers. sing., *nikhamithā*, Kh., VIII, 22; *nikhami*; Dh., VIII, 4; *huthā*, D., VII-VIII, 15, 20; *vadhithā*, VII-VIII, 14, 17. 3rd pers. plur. in *isu* (Kh., Dh., D.), except *huvsu*, Kh. VIII, 22; *husu*, D., VII-VIII, 12.

Future. — No 1st pers. in *am*. Forms, such as *kachhāmi*, have been previously quoted. It is the same with futures in which the formative

sy is changed to *h*: *ēhatha*, Dh. det. I, 17; det. II, 9 (Jaug. *ēsaitha*); *dāhamti*, D., IV, 18; *hōhamti*, VII-VIII, 4, 5, 6. It only remains to mention the forms *hōsāmi*, det. II, 8; *hōsati*, det. I, 22, at Dh.; *hōsamti* (by the side of *hōhamti*), at D., VII-VIII, 2; *hōsati* at Bh., 4.

Absolutive. — Kh. in *tu*: *dasayitu*, IV, 10, &c.; in *ya* in *sashkhayē*, XIV, 21; — Dh. in *tu*: *anusāsitu*, det. II, 6, 8; *chighitu*, IV, 17; *kaḥu*, det. II, 7, &c.; — D. in *tu*: *nisijitu*, IV, 10; *sutu*, VII-VIII, 21; in *ya* in *apahatā* = *apahṛitya* (?), VI, 8; — Bh.: in *ya* in *adhigichya* = *adhikṛitya*, 6.

Infinitive. — Dh.: *ālādhayitavē*, IX, 12; *saṁpaṭipādāyitavē*, det. I, 19; det. II, 11. — D.: *ālādhayitavē*, IV, 10; *paḥiḥaṭavē*, IV, 11; *paṭichalitavē*, IV, 8; *samādapayitavē*, I, 8.

Participles. — Participle present. — Kh. The medial form in *adamānasā*, VI, 17 and *vijinamanē*, XIII, 36; *kalantē*, XII, 33. — Dh. The medial form in *saṁpaṭipajamīnē*, det. I, 16; *vipaṭipādāyamīnēhi*, det. I, 15 (at J.: *vipaṭipātāyamīnā*), al., in which *°mā* in the place of *°mā* is curious; but cf. *pāyamīnā*, D., V, 8. — D. has the medial form in *anuvēkhamānē*, VII-VIII, 2, in the passive of the causal *pāyamīnā*, V, 8. — Bh. Participle present passive of the causal: *abhivādēdānam*. — S. The medial form in *palakamīnēna*, 3. — R.: *pahamamānēnā*. These two last forms appear to be incorrect.

Participle past passive. — I note the forms *ānapayitē*, Kh. VI, 19; Dh., III, 9; *nijhapayitā*, D., IV, 18; *sukhayitē*, VII-VIII, 3. *Anusāṭhē*, Dh., VI, 31, J., VI, 4, seems, as remarked by Dr. Bühler, to be a wrong formation for *anusitḥē*.

Participle future passive. — Kh. in *taviya*; in *iya* in *supadālayē* (?), V, 14. — Dh. in *taviya* in *ichhitaviyē*, det. I, 9, 11; *pajō* (*hitaviyē*), I, 1; in *iya* in *dakhīyē*, det. I, 13; *vadhīyē*, V, 23; *supadālayē* (?), V, 22. — D. in *taviya*: *ichhitaviyē*, IV, 14; *hamtaviyūni*, V, 15; in *iya* in *dēkhīyē*, III, 19; *dusamṭipādāyē*, I, 3. — R. in *taviya*: *vivasētaviyē*, 5. — B. in *taya*, if we are to judge from *ālādhetayē*, 6; but the reading may well be incorrect.

The short inscriptions of Barâbar, of Kauśāmbi, and of Allahâbâd (Queen's Edict)

are connected, so far as we can judge, with the orthographic series of the edicts which we have just considered: *i-ā* and *i-u*, respectively, do not appear to be distinguished in them; the *r* changes into *l*; the initial *y* disappears; neither *ā* nor *ṛ* have any particular signs; the

nominative singular of masculine bases in *a*, ends in *ē*, &c. As for special points, all I see to quote are the forms *ādivikēhi* (for *ājivikēhi*) Bar., I, 2; II, 4; *kubhā* (= *guhā*), *ibid.*, I, 2; II, 3; III, 3; *nigōha*, Bar., I, 2, as at Dehli.

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

(Continued from page 23).

[426] The third group of the texts of the Siddhānta is formed by the ten *pañnas* *prakīrṇas*.

It is as yet undetermined how old is the position of the *pañnas*, *prakīrṇas* as the third part of the Siddhānta and what caused their location there. In *Āvi.* there follow upon the *uvāṅgas* first the *chhēaggamthas* and then the *pañnas*. In *Svi.* and *V.* the *pañnas* come directly after the *uvāṅgas*, but the *chēda* texts (with the exception of *mahānisiha* which is reached after the *pañnas* are done with) have been placed before (between *aṅgas* 4 and 5), as if their position at that point belonged to them. Is the mere fact that the *pañnas* are more numerous the reason that in the *present* arrangement of the parts of the Siddhānta (see p. 226) they have been placed before the *chhēasuttas*? They are certainly very much inferior to the *chhēasuttas* both as regards inner worth and external extent.³⁷ The joint name *pañna*, by which they are united, does not occur in any other place in the Siddhānta, except in their own text, so far as I have been able to observe. The word *pañna* is found, it is true, in the *Nandī* as *saṃjñā*, but in another, far more universal signification, *vis.*, as a means of denoting all those texts not contained in the *aṅgas*. In the passage of the *Nandī* 84,000 or even 8,400,000 *pañnagas* are spoken of!

The texts now extant called *pañnas* in the pregnant sense of the word, bear a name, which, denoting "scattered," "hastily sketched" pieces, well suits their real nature as a group of texts corresponding to the Vedic *pariśiṣṭas*. Like the *pariśiṣṭas* they are, with a few exceptions, composed in metre; [427] and in fact in *āryā*, the metre which is usual in the *kārikā* insertions in the *aṅgas*, etc. They are different from the texts, which we have considered up to this point, in that the *nom. sing. masc. first decl.* regularly ends in *o* and not in *e* (for exceptions see on 5 and 7). This is a proof of their later origin.

In the usual enumeration of the *anaṅgapavittā* texts in *Nandī*, *Pākshikas*, and in the three *Sāmāyārī* we meet with but six of the ten separate titles of the present *pañna* group. In the works just mentioned, the titles of 1, 3, 4, 10 are lacking, texts which bear a decidedly secondary stamp. (The scholiast on the *Nandī* appears also in the case of No. 2 to have had before him quite a different text from the one we possess.)

These ten texts did not originally enjoy the distinction of being the representatives of the *pañna* group; and that they arrived but gradually at this honor is attested by manifold testimony going to prove that considerable dissent at present exists in regard to the representative position claimed by them.

In *Āvi.* the enumeration on this point is in three very imperfect *gāthā*: *saṃpaī pañnagā*, *namdī* 1, *anuṅgadāra* 2, *śurapachchakkhāṇa* (2) 3, *mahāpachchakkhāṇa* (9) 4, *dēvimdatthaa* (7) 5, *taṃḍulavēyāliyaṃ* (5) 6, *saṃthāra* (4) 7, 11 11 *bhattaparinnā* (3) 8, *rāhaṇapaḍāga* 9, *gaṇavijjā* (8) 10, *aṃgavijjā* 11, *ya* 1 *chaūsaraṇa* (1) 12, *dīvasāgarapannattī* 13, *jōisakaraṃḍaṃ* 14 11 2 11 *marasasamāhī* 15, *tittthōgālī* 16, *taha siddhapāhuḍapaṇṇaṃ* 17 1 *narayavibhattī* 18, *chamḍāvijjhāya* (1 6) 19, *pañchakappa* 20 11 3 11.

³⁷ Their collective extent is only about 1,900 *granthas*.

Here then are twenty names, with but one exception (10 *vīratthaa*) all belonging to the present group. There are five names which recur elsewhere in the *Siddhānta* — (1, 2, 13, 17, 20) — ; [428] two names which at least were mentioned in connection with the *Siddh.* — 14, 15, — ; and finally there are four names found nowhere else except here — 9, 11, 16, 18. It is of especial interest to observe the ascribing of *Nandī* and *Āṇuḡa* to the *pañña* group as being placed before them. This reference recurs in similar fashion in *Svi.*, where the enumeration is but fragmentary and limited to the mention of: *naṁdī* 1, *āṇuḡadārā* 2, *dēvimdatthaū* (7) 3, *taṁḍulavēyāliyam* (5) 4, *chamḍāvivviyāī* (! 6) 5, *āurapachchakkhāṇa* (2) 6, *gaṇivijjāī* (8) 7; *pañnagānam*. It then speaks of *sēsāṇi* but does not enumerate them. In *V.* the *pañña* texts are treated of on two occasions. In the first case we find, for some reason inexplicable to me, in the discussion in reference to the 15th book of *aṅga* 5, an enumeration of ten texts, which are not stated to be *paññas*, though the titles of six are found among the titles of the 10 *paññas*. At the head (the action in question is called *nandī-m-āṇaṁ vaṁḍaṇaya*) we again find *naṁdī* and *āṇuḡa*; then follow *dēvimda* (7) 3, *taṁḍula* (5) 4, *chamḍāvējjha* (! 6) 5, *gaṇivijjā* (8) 6, *marāṇa* 7, *jhāṇavibhatti* 8, *āura* (2) 9, *mahāpachchakkhāṇa* (9) 10. Of these No. 7 is doubtless identical³⁸ with *marāṇasamāhi* in *Āvi.* and No. 8 corresponds to a section in 2. See below. The second passage in *V.* is that in which the *paññas* are directly discussed; [429] and in this passage they appear in the forefront together with *nandī* and *āṇuḡa*.³⁹ Fifteen names are there mentioned, among which are all the ten members of the present list, though arranged differently, but at the end they are called only *icch-āi: saṁpayam pañnagā: naṁdī* 1, *āṇuḡadārāim* 2 . . . , *dēvimdatthaya* (7) 3, *taṁḍulaveyāliya* (5) 4, *marāṇasamāhi* 5, *mahāpachchakkhāṇa* (9) 6, *āurapachchakkhāṇa* (2) 7, *saṁthārāya* (4) 8, *chamḍāvijjhaya* (6) 9, *bhapparinnā* (3) 10, *chaṭṭasaraṇa* (1) 11 *vīratthaya* (10) 12, *gaṇivijjā* (8) 13, *dīvasāgarapannattisaṁgahaṇī* 14, *gachchāyāra* 15 *icch-āi pañnagāṇi*. Of the three additional texts mentioned here No. 5 is mentioned in *Āvi.* and elsewhere — see p. 428 — as belonging to the *paññas*; the case is similar with No. 15. No. 14 belongs to the text referred to as No. 13 in *Āvi.*, a text which possesses a considerable antiquity — pp. 268, 389. Is the *saṁgahaṇī* on it mentioned here identical with the *Jambudvīpasamgrahaṇī* of *Haribhadra* mentioned p. 413 (on *upāṅga* 6)? In connection with the above discussion *V.* treats of the *isibhāsiyāim* (see pp. 259, 281, 402), and allots to them 50⁴⁰ *ajjhayaṇas*. We have already observed that *Haribhadra* on *Āv.* 2, 6 identifies the *isibh.*, quoted there, with the “*dēvēndrastava* etc.,” but on another occasion identifies the *isibh.* with the *uttarajjhayaṇa*. We read therefore in *V.* that the *isibh.* were regarded by some as belonging to the *uttarajjh.* [430] *uttarajjhayaṇeṣu ēyāim aṁtabbhavaṁti*, to which the *mahānisīhājōgavihi* is joined in *V.*

In the *Vichārāmritasamgraha* (see p. 355) as in the three *sāmāyārī* there is an enumeration of the *pañnagas*, which begins with *Nandī* and *Āṇuḡa*. Nineteen and not 10 *paññas* are here enumerated, but of these only the first three are given a name. The passage, which is interesting for other reasons, reads in the very corrupt MSS.: *aṅga* 11, *upāṅga* 12, *chhēdasamgha* 5 (!) *mūlagraṁtha* 4 *pramukhāḥ*, *pratinīyatā ēva graṁthāḥ kalpabhāṣyādīyuktasūtralakṣhaṇōpētāḥ*, *yataḥ kvā 'pi yōgavidhau dīśyamānēshu naṁdy-anuyōgadvārā—'turapratyākhyānādy-ēkōnaviṁśatiprakīrṇakēshu kēśhām chid ēva jītakalpa-paṁchakalpādīnām virachayitārō jñāyamtē nāmagrahām, na sarvēśhām, yēśhām kartārō na jñāyamtē tāni gaṇadharakṛitāni*. Here then, *āturapratyākhyānam* (2), and not *dēvēndrastava* (7), comes after *nandī* and *anuyō*, at the head of the remaining *paññas*. Here as in *Āvi.*, the *paṁchakalpa* and, in connection with it, the *jītakalpa* seem to be counted among the *paññas*, whereas — see below — they are generally held to belong to the *chhēdasūtra*.⁴¹

³⁸ The *marāṇasamāhi* is also mentioned elsewhere. See pp. 429, 431. We might well recall the *marāṇavibhatti* in connection with the *marāṇa*, or the *marāṇavisōhi* in the enumeration of the *anaṅgapavīṭṭha*, or *aṅgabāhira* texts in *Nandī* etc. All these texts refer without doubt to euthanasia; cf. *pañna* 2.

³⁹ The connection with both is, however, very slight, for in *v.* 61 of the *jōgavihāṇa* we find the express statement: *dēvimdatthaya-m-āi pañnagā*, the connection of *nandī* and *āṇuḡa* being ignored.

⁴⁰ in *aṅga* 4, 44 only 44 *ajjh.* are allotted to them in conjunction with the *dēvalōgachuyabhāsiya*.

⁴¹ Either the *paṁch.* or the *jītak.* appears as No. 6. The *Vichārām.*, however, recognizes only five *chhēdasamghas*. See above.

1. The *sāmāiam*, *sāmāyikam*, explained in the text itself by *sāvajjajōgaviraī*, desistance from all evil.⁴⁵ Cf. the use of this word to denote the first *aṅga* also in up. 1, 87 (*ib.* 123, 125 *sāvaj-jajōgavahiya*).

2. *chaūvīsaīthaa*, *chaturvīṣatistava*, explained *ibid.* by: *ukkittanā*, praise of the virtues of the 24 Jinas.

3. *vaṇḍanaa*, explained by *guṇavaḍ paḍivatti*, honor of the gurn.

4. *paḍikkamaṇaṁ*, *pratikkramaṇaṁ* confession (to the gurn), explained by *khaliyassa nimḍanā*, censure of past misdeeds, conjoined with the intention of not committing the offence again.⁴⁶

5. *kāussagga*, *kāyotsarga*, expiation, explained by: *vaṇatigichhā*, healing of wounds, further purification of those who have been absolved by confession.

[434] 6. *pachchakkhāṇaṁ*, *pratyākhyānam*, explained by: *guṇadhāraṇā*, the observance of all virtues, or really the casting off of all evil.

The following must be noticed as regards the six *āvaśyakas*, which we will discuss later on when treating of *Nandī*, *Anuyōgadv.*, *Āvaśy.* It was to be expected that the explanations given for 1 and 6 should have changed their respective positions, i. e. *sāmāiya* should have been explained by *guṇadhāraṇā* and *pachchakkhāṇa* by *sāvajjajōgaviraī*. Had this been the case a better logical arrangement would have been effected, viz.: — 1. good action, 2. confession of the commission of misdeeds, 5. compensation for the misdeeds committed, 6. desistance from all further sins. Do not these very names seem to indicate that this was the original arrangement? The two *āvaśyakas*, cited in the second and third place, interrupt the connection between 1 and 4—6, and are consequently probably to be regarded as secondary additions.

In v. 8⁴⁷ the fourteen dreams are enumerated which the mother of a *tīrthakṛt* dreams before his birth, an enumeration which is tantamount to a list of his fourteen excellencies or virtues.

With verse 9 the text *per se* begins (the preceding portion is doubtless a secondary addition) by the author announcing his purpose: . . . *vaṇḍiṇṇ Mahāviraṇ* | *kusalāṇubhaṇḍhāṇḍhuraṇ* | *ajjhayaṇaṇ* | *kittaṭṭhāmi* || 9 || Here we have the older name of the text, since the *chaūsaraṇaṇ*, as will soon be shown, forms but a part of its contents. [435] In a MS, which contains all the 10 *paīnnas* and which is preceded by an introduction in reference to the sacred number four, the name of this *paīnna* is stated to be *kusalāṇubhaṇḍhajjhayaṇaṇ* and not *chaūsaraṇaṇ*.

In v. 10 is described the three-fold contents of the following portions, and an explanation given for this division that refers to the name adduced in v. 9: *ēsa gaṇḍ aṇavarayaṇ* | *kāyavvō kusalahēu* | *tti* || 10 || At the head stands 1. the *chaūsaraṇagamaṇaṇ* (from which the customary title of this *paīnna* has been borrowed), i. e. the prayers by means of which four-fold protection can be obtained: the *arihaṇṭa* (arhant, v. 13—23), the *siddha* (v. 23—29), the *sāhu* (*sādhv*, v. 30—40) and the *dhamma* (v. 41—48). Then follows 2. *dukkadagarihā*, a penitential system (v. 49—54) of confession to the gurn, and 3. *sukadāṇumōṇa*, the joy arising from a good deed (v. 55—57). Then come promises of reward and a verse (62) which has compassion on him, through whom *chāuraṇḍō Jīṇadhammō na kaḍ, chūraṇḍaṇ saraṇaṇ avi na kayāṇ*. The concluding verse contains the summons *iya . . vira! bhaddaṇṭam ēam ajjhayaṇaṇ jhāṇsu* (*dhyāya*).

⁴⁵ *sahā 'vadyēna pāpēna vartaṇṭa iti sāvadyāb, yōgā manōvākkāyavyāpārās, tēśāṇ viratir nivrittih.*

⁴⁶ *na punaḥ karishyāmi 'ty abhyupagamanam*; hence the name, the meeting, *pratipañ kramaṇaṇ*. The *pratikkramaṇaṇ* is (see Jacobi, *Kalpas*, p. 117) divided into five parts; 1. *daivāsikam* (we must accept this and not *dēvasikam* as the reading in Jacobi's text) i. e. to be done daily; 2. *rātrikam* nightly; 3. *pākshikam* semi-monthly; 4. every four months; 5. annually.

⁴⁷ *Āvaśy.* 2, 278, see Jacobi on *Kalpasūtra* Jin. § 4.

The commentary considers that this implies also a reference to the name of the author Virabhadra, presumably a sādhu, one of the 14,000 who joined Virā.⁴⁸

[436] There is a commentary by Sômasumâdara from the Tapâgachha; according to the Gurvâvali of this gachha (see Kl. 256) born samv. 1430, died 1499, A. D. 1374—1443.

In contradistinction to the triad of the Buddhists buddha, dharma and saṃgha, we find here a quadripartite arrangement. The saṃgha is divided into two parts, the earlier and the present saints, the siddha and the sādhu. The Buddhistic saṃgha, as is expressly stated in that of the Avesta, has reference merely to the pious of the present, who, it may be remarked, are divided in the Avesta according to sex: yēñhē hātām . . yāñhām chā tās chā tāōs chā yazamaidē. The "Holy Ghost" of the Christian trinity, the origin of which we ascribed (Ind. Streifen 3, 584) to gnostic connection either with the trinity of the Parsees or with that of the Buddhists, embraces all time.

XXVI. The second pañnam, āurapachchakkhāṇam, āturapraty°, c. 70 vv. with an insertion in prose after v. 10 treats⁴⁹ of the *renunciatio* of the *moribundus*, the pañḍiyamarāṇam, the genuine euthanasia, cf. Bhagav. 2, 1, 48, 76 (my treatise, 2, 266—7, 290). The introduction consists of enumerations of the five anuvvayas (pāṇivahavēramāṇa etc.), and of the guṇavvayas and sikkhās.⁴⁹ In v. 8 there is a citation from the third pañna: jō bhattaparinnāē (bhaktaparakīrṇakē) uvakkamō vittharēṇa niddiṭṭhō⁵⁰ sō chē 'va bālapanḍiya maraṇē nēō jahājuggam || 8 || In v. 10 the proclamation of the [437] real intention of the author: ittō pañḍiya! pañḍiyamarāṇam⁵¹ vuchoham samāsāṇam || 10 ||

The prose paragraph which follows contains a general formula for confession and renunciation, beginning with the words: ichhāmi bhamtē uttamaṭṭham (! uttamārtham pāpānām prakāram, gloss) pratikramāmi, and closes with 63 jhāṇa, dhyāna, formulas, beginning: annāṇam jhāṇē.⁵² Joined to these are corresponding formulas composed in gāthās. The methods of counting the verses vary greatly in the different MSS., since in some the prose part is counted in as 13 verses, so that the total sum is 84 verses; and differences of another nature are also apparent. The scholiast on the Nandī, it may be remarked in passing,⁵³ in his enumeration of the anaṅga-pavitṭha texts, held another text than the present one to be the āurapachchakkhāṇam!

[438] XXVII. Third pañnam, the bhattaparinnā, bhaktaparijñā, in 172 vv., treats of the bālapanḍiyamarāṇam. Cf. the citation just made from v. 8 of the second pañna. This pañna contains ethical precepts⁵⁴ which refer constantly to the Jināsāṇam, Jinavayaṇam, the Jīnapañiya (prañīta) doctrines, while at the same time it cites its own title; cf. (v. 9—11, 14, 18, 35, 169, 171). In the verse before the last, this pañna is said like pañna 1 to refer back to (the

⁴⁸ yō 'sau Virabhadrasādhuḥ śrī Virasaktah chaturdaśasahasramadhyavartī tasyē 'dam ētad adhyayanam, ēvaṃ śāstrakartuḥ samāsāgarbham abhidhānam uktaṃ; asya ohā 'dhyayanasya Virabhadrasādhukṛitavajñāpanēna yasya jinasya yāvantah sādhevah pratyēkabudhā (see pp. 265, 334) api tāvaṃta ēva prakīrṇāny api tāvaṃti bhavaṃti 'ti jñāpitaṃ bhavati (! see below on the Nandī).

⁴⁹ In the Viehāramritasāṅghah — see p. 430 — the āurap.° is placed after nandī and anyōga, at the head of the pañnas.

⁵⁰ See Windisch in *Jour. Germ. Or. Soc.* 28, 226 (1874).

⁵¹ itaḥ pañḍitānām viśēṣatō 'pi pa 'ṇam prochyatē samkshēpataḥ.

⁵² jhāṇē is always construed here with the accus., i. e. probably as 1 p. sing. ātm. of a denominative (dhyāṇay)? — A collection of examples of these dhyānas is to be found in the introduction of Harshakuśala's commentary on the fourth pañna: dhyānabhēdās tu likhyantē: annāṇajhāṇē, ātra māsatūsadriṣṭāntah. Harshakuśala recognizes the number of these formulas as 61. The words before jhāṇē appear in thematic form, as pūrvapadāni, and not as accus. Cf. the jhānavibhatti above, p. 428.

⁵³ The scholiast has here: chāritrasya vidhiḥ; gilāṇakiraṇāṭṭiyam gīyatthā paohchakkhāviṃti diṇē 2 dāvvaḥāsah karēttē antē a savvadā paṇayāē bhattathēragam | jānattā pīttinhasa bhavacharimapaohchakkhāṇam kāravē (r)ti tti ityādi yatra varṇyatē; mahatpratyākhyānam yatrō 'ktaṃ. Even if the name āturapratyākhyānam is not directly mentioned, the meaning and the position of these words between the explanations of the titles: charanaviññā and mahāpaohchakkhāṇam makes most decidedly for the conclusion that this very corrupt statement of contents, the sense of which cannot be restored, belongs to the title āura° which in the text is between these two titles. On gīyatthā see below (pp. 450, 464, 478), on the chhēdasutta.

⁵⁴ Directions as to how a man should abstain from food, Kash.

doctrines of) Virabhadda, though it is perhaps better to assume that Mahāvīra himself is referred to in this verse:—*ia jo īsara-jīṇa-vī-rabhaddabhaṇiyāṇusāriṇiṃ (!) iṇam-ō | bhattaparinnam dhannō paḍhamānti nisūṇamānti bhāvaṇti || 171 || sattarisayaṃ Jīṇaṃ va gāhāṇaṃ samayakhittapannattam | ārahantō vihiṇā sāsayasukkhāṃ lahaī mukkhāṃ || 172 ||* According to this concluding verse the text should contain only 170 verses, but perhaps the two concluding verses are a secondary addition. The plural of the verbs in v. 171 in opposition to those in the singular *jō . . . dhannō* is at least very peculiar. Instead of the Sanskrit °sāriṇiṃ (°sāriṇām B! both times with *m*) °sāriṇiṃ is doubtless the better reading.

XXVIII. Fourth paṇnam, saṃthāra, saṃstāra, in 122 vv., treats of the bed upon straw. Cf. Bhagav. 2, 1, 70, 74 (my treatise 2, 288, 297) as a preparation for the paṇḍiyamaraṇam, the proper euthanasia. The title saṃthāra is frequently referred to throughout the text; cf. v. 1, 3, 4, 15, 21, 27, 30 etc.), thus *e. g.*: saṃthārammi nibaṇḍham guṇaparivāḍiṃ nisāmēha || 1 ||. This was the case with paṇna 3.

[439] In v. 32 — 44 the qualities of the man are described who intends to ascend the saṃthāra, the second hemistich recurring throughout as a refrain; . . . āruhaī jō saṃthāraṃ suvisuddhō tassa saṃthārō. In v. 56 fg. there are cited all manner of instances of those who died saṃthāram ārūḍhā. Thus, the flower-gatherer (? pupphachūlā) Ajjā in Pōyaṇapura v. 56, Sukōsalarisi v. 63, examples from Ujjēṇī v. 65, Rōhidaḡaṃ nayaram v. 68, Pāḍaliputta vv. 70, 73, Kōsambī v. 78, Kuṇālanagara v. 80, the names Kurudatta v. 84, Gayasukumāla v. 85, Ohilāiputta v. 86, Maṃkhali v. 87. It concludes: ēva(m) maē abhithuyā saṃthāragāṇḍakhaṇḍham ārūḍhā | susamaṇanarimḍachamāḍā suhasaṃkamaṇaṃ sayā diṃtu || 122 ||.

XXIX. Fifth paṇnam, taṇḍulavēyāliyam,⁵⁵ in verse, prose, and again in verse. The contents are of an anthropological and physiological nature, and are briefly stated in the introduction:—

vochchham paṇnagam iṇaṃ taṇḍulavēyāliyaṃ nāma || 1 ||

suṇaha gaṇiē⁵⁶ dasa dasā (disā A) vāsasayāssa jaha vibhajjānti | saṃkalīē vōgasīē jaṃ chā
"yuṃ sēsayaṃ hōi || 2 ||

jattiyamittē divasē jattiyā rāi muhuttam ussāsō | gabbhammi vāsāi jīvō āhāravihim ya
vochchhāmi || 3 ||

Then follows the statement that the jīva [440] remained in the womb 277 full ahōrattas and one-half of an ahōratta (cf. Aup. § 104) — (26 verses + 3). The prose treats especially of the life and development of the embryo in the womb, striking parallels to which are found in the statements in Nirukti 14, 6, 7, and in the Garbhōpanishad (*Ind. Stud.* 2, 66). The subject is treated in the form of a dialogue, in antique form, between Mahāvīra and Gōyama. The nominative often ends in *e* and not in *o*, so that we may suppose an older source is the base of this recital. Then follows an enumeration of the dasa dasā (disā A), ten "ages of man" (cf. Ath. 3, 4, 7): bālā, kiṭṭā (A, kiḍā B, viḍḍā C), maṇḍā, balā, pannā, hāyaṇi, pavamchā, pabbhārā, mummuhī (A, ma^o B, su^o C), māyaṇi. These are then treated separately in metre. The text then returns to prose, and treats, in connection with the āyus, of the divisions of time: āvaliyā, khaṇa up to the kōḍākōḍiṭu, i. e. millions of years, after which it discusses the multiplicity of bodily relations and of the nature of the body in general. Next come the dry measures based upon the māgahaḍ patthō, cf. Ath. par. 35, 3 (my treatise on the Jyōt. p. 80; Aupap. § 80, 98), measures of length, of time, the number of the bones, sinews and other parts of the body, of all manner of diseases, of women, &c. Here and there we find verses inserted though they are not counted in continuously with the rest. At the conclusion we find 18 verses:—

ēyaṃ sōṇuṃ sarirassa (metre!) vāsāṇaṃ gaṇiyapāgaḍamahattham | mokkhapaṇḍassa ihaṭ

⁵⁵ It is uncertain how we are to translate or explain this. In aṅgas 2, 1, 3 vēyāliya is = vaidārika, in dasavēlha = vaikālīka. In ms. or fol. 1075 the title is translated by taṇḍulavaitālīkam; and also in Kashinath (the state of a child in the womb, its birth, &c.),

⁵⁶ jyotiḥśāstrē, gloss.

(metre!) samattam sahasapattassa (metre!) || 17 || ãyañ sagadaśarīrañ jāi-jarā[441] maraṇa-vēyañābahulañ | taha pattaha⁵⁷ kām jē⁵⁸ jaha muchchaha savvadukkhāṇaṃ || 18 ||

XXX. Sixth pañnañ, chaṇḍāvijjhayañ,⁵⁹ in 174 vv. In the introduction, a dāragāhā (v. 3), with a conspectus of the contents. Vv. 4 — 19 treat of vinaya in general, vv. 20 — 35 of the qualities of a teacher, āyariyaṇa, vv. 36 — 51 of the scholar, śisagūṇa, vv. 52 — 65 of the impediments (?), niggaḥagūṇa,⁶⁰ in the way of the vinaya, vv. 66 — 98 of perception, nāṇagūṇa, vv. 99 — 114 of the conduct of life, charaṇagūṇa, v. 115 fg. of death, maraṇagūṇa. All these sections are clearly separated by a verse which marks the end of one and the beginning of another (20, 35, 52, 66, 98, 115). Thus, e. g. v. 20: viṇayaassa guṇavisēṣā ēē māē vaṇṇiā samāseṇaṃ | āyariyaṇaṃ cha guṇē āgamaṇā mē nisāmēha || 20 || In v. 173 the contents is repeated or recapitulated as in the dāragāhā; and the concluding verse is closely connected with that of pañna 6:

tahapattaha kām jē jaha muchchaha gabbhāvāsavaśaṇṇaṃ | maraṇapūabbhavaḥajammaṇa-duggaīviṇivāyagamaṇāṇaṃ || 174 ||

XXXI. Seventh pañnañ, dēvimdattha, dēvimdrastava; in 300 vv. A systematic enumeration of the 32 dēvimdas, and of all the gods according to their [442] groups, dwelling places, &c.⁶¹ The Nom. Sing. M. of Decl. I ends frequently in e, perhaps because the contents partially follows the statements in the āṅgas and upāṅgas. The divisions are here, as in the case of pañna 6, distinctly separated; and the author here, too, speaks of himself in the first person, and addresses not unfrequently (cf. p. 458) a suṇḍarī, suṇṇu, as the one for whom his work is intended.⁶²

A patent contradiction to this secular method of treatment is found in Haribhadra on Āvaśy. 2, e, where the author proclaims himself to be the composer of a nijjuttī: isibhāsiṇaṃ, and explains this word by dēvimdrastavādināṃ. We have seen above (pp. 259, 281, 429) that on 8, 4 he referred it to the uttarajjhāṇa. That our text should be so honoured as to be brought into connection with a work of such an important title as the isibhāsiya (cf. āṅgas 3, 10, 4, 44) and to have been thought worthy of a nijjuttī at the hands of the author of the Āvaśyaniryukti (whoever this may have been), seems utterly impossible if we take into consideration the secondary character of this small mythological manual (see above, pp. 280, 432). It is, however, worth our attention to note the fact that also in Svi. V. (see above, p. 428 fg.) the pañnas are frequently said to begin with a text of this name.

[443] The table of contents in v. 7 ff. reads: kayarē tē vattisaṃ dēvimdā? kō va kattha parivasa? kēvaīyā kassa thīl? kō bhavaṇapariggahō kassa? || 8 || kēvaīyā nu vimāṇā? bhavaṇā nagarā cha huṃti kēvaīyā? puḍhaviṇa cha vāhuttam uyyattavimāṇa vinnō (?) vā || 9 || kāraṃti cha kālēṇā (?) ukkōsaṃ majjhimāṃ jahannaṃ cha | ussāsō nissāsō udḍhī (?) visaḥ va kō kēsīm? || 10 || and closes: dēvimdanikāyaṇaṃ thaḥ (iha) samattō aparisēṣō || 300 ||

XXXII. Eighth pañnañ, gaṇaviyyā, gaṇavidyā, in 86 vv. The contents is of an astrological character.⁶³ It begins: vuchchhaṃ balābalavihiṃ navabalavihiṃsuttasaṃchiṇ pasatthaṃ | jīṇava-

⁵⁷ Cf. pattihi in Hāla.

⁵⁸ See Hēm. 2, 217, Hāla 524 in Bhuṇ. (p. 189).

⁵⁹ The name is obscure; viyyaya in A, but vijjhaya in B, Nandī, Pākshika and in the three sāmācārī; once in Āvi. °vijjhāya, in Svi. °viyyāya (a poor MS.) and °vejiha in V; Kashināth has: chaṇḍāvijjaya, an account of witchcraft, magic and mysticism (!). — The right Sanskrit equivalent of the title is *Candṛaka-vēdhya* which, as Ogha-niryukti 1142 shows, is the same as *rādhāvēdhya* 'aim-striking.' — L.

⁶⁰ niggaṇagūṇa vv. 8, niggaḥagūṇa in vv. 52 and 173.

⁶¹ Panegyrics on the Tīrthakara's by Dēva and Indra (!), Kashināth.

⁶² The introduction states the situation in explicit terms: kōi (kōl?) paḍhamapaṭisaṃmi sāvāṇ samayanichchiya-riphahaṇū (?) metre!) | vānnēi vāyaṃ nyāraṃ jiyamāṇē Vaddhamāṇaṃmi || 3 || tassa thūṇaṇtassa (✓ stu, Cl. 9) jīṇaṃ sāmāyikaḍā piyāsu hanisāṇā | pañjaliṇḍā abhinhiṇḍi suṇaṇi vāyaṃ Vaddhamāṇassa || 8 || Likewise in v. 7: sā piyaṃ bhapaṇi, and in v. 11: padipucchhiḥ piyāḥ bhapaṇi: suṇaṇi! tām nisāmēha. Further on frequently: vaṇṇihimi or vaṇṇehimi (! varṇayishyāmi), vuchchaṃ, vuchhāmi, &c.

⁶³ The avachātri on the Nandī explains as follows: gaṇavidyā jyōtishkanimittādi pariṇānarūpā, sā hi samyak parīṇānarūpā pravrajāṇasāmāyikārōpanōpasthāpanā-rutoddēśanujāṅgārōpañādisānujāṇviharādi prayōjanēshu napa-yōgini.

yaṇabhāsiyam iṇaṁ pavayaṇasatthammi jahaditṭhaṁ || 1 ||, and treats according to the dāragāhā (v. 2): 1. of the days, divasa, vv. 3—8, — 2. of the lunar days, tihi, vv. 9, 10, — 3. of the nakshatra, vv. 11—41, — 4. of the karaṇa, vv. 42—46 — 5. of the planets, gaḍaḍivasa, vv. 47, 48, — 6. of the hours, muhutta, vv. 49—58, — 7. of the omens, saṁpabalam, vv. 59—63, — 8. of the horoscope, lagḡabalam, vv. 64—72, — and 9. of the signs, nimitta, vv. 73—85. — The context corresponds in character with the statements of the Atharvaparīśiṣṭa. The names of the nakshatras represent a secondary stage⁶⁴ as upāṅgas 5—7. The karaṇas are, however, recognized here as in up. 6, though the fourth [444] is called, as in ap. 6, not taitila, but thilāṇa. In the discussion in reference to the lagna the word hōrā is found (v. 66) and, as it appears (the passage is corrupt), also the word dikkāṇa (vv. 67, 69), so that we have a patent instance of Greek influence.

The second collection of the dasapaṇṇa (see above, p. 431) allots only 31 vv. to the gaṇivīyā. Of the verses here only the following recur there: 1—14, 21—32, 35, 37, 74, 82; §§ 4—8 are entirely wanting, § 3 has instead of 31 vv. only 14, and § 9 instead of 13 only 2.

XXXIII. Ninth paṇṇaṁ, mahāpachchakkhāṇaṁ, in 143 vv. A general formula designed for confession and renunciation. It begins: ēsa karēmi paṇāmaṁ titthayaṇaṁ aṇuttaraḡaṇaṁ | . . . || 1 || . . . | saddahē jinapannattam pachchakkhāmi (a) pāvagaṁ || 2 || jaṁ kiṁ chī duchchariyaṁ tam ahaṁ nimdāmi savvabhāṇaṁ | sāmāiyaṁ cha tivihāṁ karēmi savvaṁ nirāḡaraṁ || 3 || The verses frequently close as groups with the same refrain; e. g. paṇḍiyamarapaṇaṁ marhāmi (future) vv. 41—48, pāvugaḡ marhāmi v. 50, rakkhāmi mahavvāḡ paṇcha vv. 68—76, sāhaṁtī (or sāhēuṁ) appaḡ attham vv. 80—84, vōsirāmi, tti pāvagaṁ vv. 116—120. The formula uses the first person alone: nimdāmi, ḡarhāmi, vōsirāmi, vōsirē, khāmēmi, pachchaikkhāmi (!). It concludes: ēyaṁ pachchakkhāṇaṁ aṇupālēṇa suvihiḡ sammaṁ | vēmāṇiya vva dēvō haviyya ahaṇā visiyyiyya || 143 ||. It, therefore, opens up as the prospect of the reward of correct performance of confession, entrance among the vēmāṇiya gods or complete dissolution (visīryēta).

PARSI AND GUJARATI HINDU NUPTIAL SONGS.

BY PUTLIBAI D. H. WADIA.

(Continued from Vol XIX. page 378).

PART II.

TRANSLATION.

No. 6.

Song sung when the wedding presents are being carried for the bride or the bridegroom.

- Five sets of presents for the bride and five for the bridegroom :
(Even) the king has admired them from the balcony (of his palace).
Five sets of presents for the bride and five for the bridegroom,
The wedding guests have been brought from the country of Jasā.¹
5 Their praises have been sung in good words. . . .²
Joy, joy to him by whose side the pipes are being played.
Let us make an ovation with a tray full of pearls.
Come forth, mother of the bridegroom, his aunts, his sisters all :
The petted bridegroom will now mount his horse,
10 And he will have a splendid following.
Graceful flower girl, tripping gracefully along,
Who will buy thy daisies ?
His father,³ Mēharwānjī, will be sure to buy them ;
For he is in pressing need of them.

⁶⁴ The name jīṭṭhamūla (see *Ind. Stud.* 10, 286) is found here (v. 11) ; see p. 380.

¹ It is not plain what country is meant.

² The meaning is not quite clear.

³ The bridegroom's.

- 15 His father is overjoyed and spends money (freely)
In order to keep up his prestige.
The bridegroom's mother has caused a beautiful *sâđi* to be woven for herself,
And a bodice of cloth of gold.
Father, what shall we admire most in this procession ?
- 20 I bring my procession (of guests) from the city of Bombay (Mumbâi).
Send for jewellers from Surat,
Send for boxes full of *jhâl*⁴ and *jhunrân*⁴
And adorn the bride and the bridegroom with them.
Brother, what shall we admire most in this procession ?
- 25 I bring my procession (of guests) from the City of Sûrat.
Send for goldsmiths from Sûrat,
And get boxes full of bangles and bracelets.
Indulge every desire of the marrying couple.
Now, father, you who are a man of influence,⁵
- 30 Get together good wedding guests.
The flower girl enters the narrow street,
And brings garlands of buds.
Flower girl, we shall buy what you bring.
We married⁶ women shall unite in buying (your flowers).
- 35 Get married women to sing songs,
And indulge every desire of the marrying couple.
Sôrabjî will now ride his horse,
And by his side (will walk) his brother who is a *dêśdî*⁷.
Let me scatter mustard seeds under the horse's feet,
- 40 And wish the rider every blessing.
Let me sprinkle some *jîrañ*⁸ under the horse's feet :
I would not entrust any one with the rider even for a moment.
Let me place (some) *damuđ*⁹ under the horse's feet,
Sôrabjî will mount his horse with his face to the East.
- 45 Let me sprinkle some salt¹⁰ under the horse's feet.
This is the first time in my life that I do such a (meritorious) thing.
Let me break (some) eggs¹¹ under the horse's feet.
May the rider be as (prosperous as) his ancestors.
Now my Sôrabjî has mounted his horse,
And has bowed his head to Dâdâr Hôrmaĵda.

⁴ Ornaments for the ear.

⁵ The meaning is not quite clear.

⁶ Women under coverture, as distinguished from widows.

⁷ The headman of a community invested with certain magisterial powers.

⁸ Seeds resembling fennel seeds.

⁹ *Damuđ* is a sweet smelling herb.

¹⁰ Mustard seeds *damuđ*, and *jîrañ*, are not, so far as I know, considered auspicious, but salt is believed to carry prosperity with it.

¹¹ Eggs play an important part in Pârsi festive ceremonies : whenever a person is to be welcomed, a tray is prepared with a good many things, which are believed to be auspicious. These are : a cocoanut, an egg, a handful of rice, a little water, and some sugar made up into little cakes. As soon as the guest steps up to the door the mistress of the house, or if she happens to be a widow, some relative of hers, goes forth with the tray in her hand, and first taking up the egg waves it over the head of her guest, and breaks it against the steps or the pavement ; then she does the same with the cocoanut, and finally sprinkles the rice and sugar cakes over the favoured head. This done, she waves her hands over her guest's head, and uttering some blessings cracks her finger joints against her own temples (*vide ante*, Vol. XIX. page 875, note 13, part I), and bids the guest step in with the right foot foremost. The cocoanut, egg, &c., are believed to carry off all evil with them ; and they make it a point to break the egg and the cocoanut, from which it appears that some sacrifice is meant, and the egg does duty for a live offering, which latter the Pârsis cannot admit into their nuptial rites, out of respect for the feelings of the Hindus whose customs they have largely adopted.

No. 7.

Another Song sung when the mother-in-law welcomes her son-in-law.

The mother-in-law welcomes her son-in-law, ornaments adorning her head ;
Seizing upon an auspicious moment, she welcomes the bridegroom and adorns his neck with
a garland (of flowers).

With an oblation of flowers and cocoanuts and rings¹² is the bridegroom received, and is
made to sit under the *māṇḍav*.

Śirīnbāi, thy husband has come, and wants some place to put up at.

Give him an orchard to put up at, and his mother's heart will rejoice.

5 Give him a garden to put up at, and his father's heart will rejoice.

Give him a palace to put up in, and his sister's heart will rejoice.

Give him (a place near) a small well to put up at, and his paternal aunt's heart will rejoice.

Give him (a place near) a sacred river¹³ to put up at, and his maternal aunt's heart will rejoice.

Give him a yard to put up in, and his paternal uncle's heart will rejoice.

10 Give him a mango plantation to put up at, and his maternal uncle will rejoice.

Let us bestow upon the bridegroom mango and tamarind plantations,

And let us bestow towns and villages on him.

Let us give him eighty-four market places, and let us give him extensive forests.

(But the bridegroom says) "I care not for your mango and tamarind plantations, nor do I
wish to have your towns and villages ;

15 I need not your eighty-four market places nor your extensive forests ;

I am come only to take away Pharāmji's daughter, for then only will my life be worth living."

The bridegroom is being decorated with twist¹⁴ and has been brought down to marry a virgin.

Sprinkle showers of rose-water and hand packets of *pāṇ* round (to the guests).

Sprinkle showers of saffron on, and hand bouquets of flowers round (to the guests).

20 The guests are welcome, guests of her who has been waiting (for them).

TEXT.

गीत ६.

वरणीनुं गीत.

पांचे वरणी ने पांचे आदरणी.

जठरा¹⁵ परधी राजाए वखाणी.

पांचे वरणी ने पांचे कलीभाणी.

जसां देशधी ते जाण आणी.

5 एरे वखाणी शबको वाणी अवल पालव जाणीए.¹⁶

धन धन रे कुखे वांसली वागे.

भरी मोतीनी गळे वधावीए.

वरनी माए रे मासी, बेन फुड चालो आपणे जइए.

लाडकरो¹⁷ सपरसजी¹⁸ घोडे चडसे.

10 आहाबोले तेनो खूब सोभसे;

¹² The mother-in-law receives her son-in-law when he comes down to marry her daughter in the following manner :— She goes forth with a tray in her hand, in which are placed a diamond or any other kind of ring, or some other ornament for the bridegroom along with *kañkā*, some grains of rice, some dry dates and almonds, cocoanuts, and a cone-shaped packet of sugar. The mother-in-law makes a mark with the *kañkā* on the bridegroom's forehead, and presses some grains of rice on to it. Then she puts a garland of flowers round his neck, and puts the ring on his finger. This done, she throws a few grains of rice over his head and passing her hands over his face or his head cracks her finger joints against her temples (*vide* the preceding note).

¹³ काशा is the word used in the text and is made to rhyme with माशी, a mother's sister.

¹⁴ During the marriage ceremony the bride and bridegroom are made to sit opposite each other, and twist is wrapped round and round both their persons by the priests, who continue repeating prayers and burning incense on a fire. This practice is now being gradually dropped by the Parsis, but is still prevalent among the Hindus.

¹⁵ जठरा I interpret this word झरुखा baloony.

¹⁶ This last phrase is unintelligible, separately अवल means first or best, पालव an embroidered border, and जाणीए we know.

¹⁷ See ante, note 38, part I.

¹⁸ सपरसजी is the common name by which all bridegrooms are called before they are married.

- लटकारी रे मालन लटके चाले,
कोण लेखे रे तारो मोघरी.
लेखे लेखे रे एना मेहरवानजी बाबा,
तेने छे गरजो उतावली.
- 15 एनो बाबो रे हरखे इलामां खरखे,
नाम पोतानां राखखे.
वरनी माए ते सोभत साडी वणावी,
कसबी अलेचानी कांचली.
बाबा साजणमां शुं रे वखाणुं.
- 20 मारुं साजण मुम्बाई शेहेरनुं आणुं.
सुरत शेहेरना झवेरी बोलावो.
दाबडा भरी भरी झाल झुमरां लावो.
मारां वडवरने ते जोरे पेहरावो.
वीरा साजणमां शुं रे वखाणुं,
- 25 मारुं साजण सुरत शेहेरनुं आणुं.
सुरत शेहेरना सोनीरा बोलावो.
दाबडा भरी भरी चुरा वारा लावो.
मारां परणतांना कोड पोंहचरावो.
हवे बाबाजी बळवंतवाळो,¹⁹
- 30 तने सारा साजणीआ मेलवावो.

- सांकडी शोरीमां मालणरी²⁰ आवे.
काचा कळीओना हारो लइ आवे.
मालण तने लावो ते अमे लइशुं.
अमो सोवासणो मळीने लइशुं.
- 35 सोवासण लोक कण गीत गवडावो.
मारा परणतांना कोड पोंहचरावो.
घोडे चडशेरे सोराबजी भाइ.
तेनी आगळ वीरो देशाइ.
घोडाना पगतले छांटुं रे राइ.
40 घोडाना चडताने भरुं भलाइ.
घोडाना पगतले छांटुं रे जीरुं.
घोडेना चडताने घडीओ नहीं धीरुं.
घोडाना पगतले मेलुं रे दमनो.
घोडे चडशे सोराबजी उगमनो.
- 45 घोडाना पगतले छांटुं रे मीठां.²¹
मारी जणमारे ए कामो रे वीठां.
घोडाना पगतले भांजुं रे इंडां.
घोडेना चडताने वरावोनां मीहणां.
घोडे चडीओरे मारो सोराबजी.
50 ते दादर होरमजदने लागो रे पाये.

गीत ७.

सासु जमाइने हरगवा नीसरे ते वेळा गावानुं गीत.

- वर सासु ते हरगवा नीसयां, मस्तके बांध्या मोड रे.
वेळा ते जोइ वर हरगीओ, गळे सोभाड्यो हारडो.
फुल नारल वीटीए वर हरगीओ, मांडव मांहे बेसाड्यो.
वर आड्यो रे क्षीरीनबाइ तारो मांगे उतारा ठार रे.
- 5 उतारा आपो वारीना मन हरो ते वरनी माडीनां.
उतारा आपो बागना मन हरो ते वरना बापनां.
उतारा आपो मेहेलना मन हरो ते वरनी बहेननां.
उतारा आपो फुइना मन हरो ते वरनी फुइनां.
उतारा आपो काशीना मन हरो ते वरनी मासीनां.
- 10 उतारा आपो झांपाना मन हरो ते वरना काकानां.

- उतारा आपो आंबांना मन हरो ते वरना मामानां.
आपो ते आंबां आमळी आपो ते नगर गाम रे.
आपो चोरीआसी चौटडां, आपो ते बोहोळां रान रे.
नहीं लेडं ते आंबां आमळी नहीं लेडं ते नगर गाम रे.
- 15 नहीं लेडं चोरीआसी चौटडां नहीं लेडं ते बोहोळां रान रे.
लेख लेख ते फरामजीनी क्षीकरी मारां ते जीव्यां परमाण रे.
वरने काचां सुमरे सणगार्या, कुमारीसे परणवा उतार्या.
छांटो छांटो ते गोलाबनां छांटणां पाण ते बीरां आपो हाथमां.
छांटो छांटो रे केसरनां छांटणां फूल तोरा ते आपो हाथमां.
- 20 मारा साजणीआ रे भले आव्या, ना जोती ते वाटी रे.²²

MISCELLANEA.

NOTES ON THE MANNERS, CUSTOMS, RELIGION, AND SUPERSTITIONS OF THE TRIBES INHABITING THE SHAN STATES¹

The natives of the Shân States belong to the following tribes:—

- (i) Shâns, who belong to the great Tai family, and occupy generally the valleys of the Shân plateau.

(ii) Palaungs, who occupy the highlands.

(iii) Kachins, a hill tribe.

(iv) Karens in very small numbers.

(v) A few Panthays.

(vi) Lâs and Wâs, who occupy a tract of country to the east of the Salween river.

The descendants of the great Tai family of Shâns are the main occupants of the country and

¹⁹ This phrase is rather ambiguous.

²⁰ Poetical form of मालन.

²¹ मीठां is the plural form of मीटु salt, but it is grammatically incorrect.

²² न जोती ते वाटी This phrase is grammatically incorrect, it should be वाट जोतीना.

¹ [Printed originally as a Government paper, by Mr. W. R. Hillier, but as the vernacular words were then given only in Shân characters, this is practically the first useful publication of these very valuable, though somewhat unskillfully written, notes.—Ed.]

rule the States. Their language is both spoken and written, and, like Chinese, is a tonal language. They are Buddhists in religion. Agriculture is their main occupation, and rice the staple crop. It grows luxuriantly both in puddled land and on the hill slopes, yielding good crops.

The Sháns are divided in the Northern Shán States into Northern Sháns or Tainü, and Southern Sháns or Taitaü. Northern Sháns are again divided into Tainü (Northern Sháns) and Tainamk'am (Namkham Sháns) or Taik'è (Chinese Sháns). The Tainü proper and the Taitaü dress alike. The Taitaü are often also called Taileng (Red Sháns). The Tainamk'am and the Taik'è dress mostly in dark blue (both men and women). The mode of living and habits of all classes are alike, the only difference between them being in dress and accent.

At birth no particular ceremonies are performed. The mother is not secluded. No rules of diet are enforced on the woman during pregnancy; but the mother is for one month after the birth of a child forbidden the following,—

- (1) *sambhar* flesh,
- (2) barking deer's flesh,
- (3) fish called *pumung*,
- (5) oranges,
- (5) vermicelli,
- (6) sessamum oil,
- (7) *p'akbat* (an edible fern),
- (8) *p'almá* (onion),
- (9) *maiké'usóm* (tomato).²

The above articles of food are said not to agree with a newly-born infant. Immediately after child-birth, the mother has her stomach bandaged, and sits with her back exposed to a fire made of any wood, which, when punctured, does not exude any milk or gum. The woods generally used are,—

- (1) *mainim* (oak),
- (2) *maikót*,
- (3) *maik'ók* (tree fern),
- (4) *maiméut*,
- (5) *maiké³* (chestnut).

The mother is considered unclean for seven days, and before entering upon the duties of the household has to bathe and put on clean garments. Pine-wood (*maipék*) is burnt and the mother inhales the smoke, and also inhales *samóngnák³*, which is said to prevent a rising of blood to the head, and so to prevent bleeding from the nose and mouth. Should the mother bleed from the mouth or nose, she is given a

decoction of turmeric or some monkey's blood. The husband observes no special diet during the pregnancy of his wife, or after her delivery, but it is considered undesirable that he should,—

- (1) drive pigs.
- (2) carry the dead.
- (3) bore holes.
- (4) fill in holes in the ground.
- (5) mock others.

After a month the child is bathed in water, into which, if the child is a boy, have been put silver, gold, precious stones, a 10-*tólá* weight, a 5-*tólá* weight, a 2-*tólá* weight, and other standard weights down to $\frac{1}{4}$ of a *tólá*. If the child is a girl, silver, gold, and all the ornaments of the female sex are put in the bath water. If the child is of well-to-do parents $1\frac{1}{2}$ *tólás* weight of gold is tied as a pendant round the child's neck, and if of poor people four annas weight of silver. The child is now named by one of the elders, who ties a cord, consisting of seven threads, round the wrist.

The name is given in the following order:—

If a boy (son);—

- 1st son = Ai.
- 2nd son = Ai Yi.
- 3rd son = Ai S'am.
- 4th son = Ai S'ai.
- 5th son = Ai Ngo.
- 6th son = Ai Nók.
- 7th son = Ai Nu.
- 8th son = Ai Nai.

If a girl (daughter);—

- 1st daughter = Nang Yè.
- 2nd daughter = Nang Yi.
- 3rd daughter = Nang Am.
- 4th daughter = Nang Ai.
- 5th daughter = Nang O.
- 6th daughter = Nang Ók.
- 7th daughter = Nang It.⁴

These names are kept by both boys and girls, unless changed under the following conditions:—

- (1) If the boy enters a *kyaung* (Buddhist monastery).
- (2) If after three or four years the child (boy or girl) is renamed with a name indicating the day of birth.
- (3) If illness supervenes, when the name is changed in the following manner;—

A ceremony is performed by which the child is supposed to be exchanged for—

² á = aw in law.

³ Burmese *samóngnet* = *nigella sativa*.

⁴ [The Burmese naming customs are simply those of

the Hindus borrowed direct from India, hence these primitive customs of the Sháns are peculiarly interesting.—Ed.]

- (a) A piece of coarse cloth, and is then called Master (or Miss) Coarse Cloth, Ai Mam or Nang Man;
- (b) A portion of silver, when the name becomes Master (or Miss) Silver, Ai Ngeun or Nang Ngeun;
- (c) A pair of scales, when, if the child weighs more than a viss (Rs. 100 in weight),^{*} the name becomes Ai (or Nang) Swoi⁶ S'a, Master (or Miss) More-than-one-viss; or,
- (d) The child is put into a roaster and a pretence is made of roasting it, after which it is called Master (or Miss) Roast, Ai Kā or Nang Kā; or,
- (e) The child is thrown away, and picked up again by some member of the family, and after a little time given back to the parents and called Master (or Miss) Picked-up, Ai (or Nang) Kip; or,
- (f) If there is a visitor in the house the child is given to him, and then taken back and called Ai (or Nang) K'ek, Master (or Miss) Visitor; or,
- (g) If it be full moon day, the child is called Ai (or Nang) Mōn, Master (or Miss) Full Moon; or,
- (h) If the child have birth marks, it is called Ai (or Nang) Mai, Master (or Miss) Marks.

The above changes of name are made to restore the child to health, and if they fail to do so, the child is then taken to the *kyauung* (Buddhist monastery) with some offerings and called Ai (or Nang) Lū, Master (or Miss) Offering.

All the names under head (3) are subject to further change under heads (1) and (2).

A boy, when old enough to talk and learn, is sent to a *kyauung* (in this case a monastic school), which he attends till he learns off the first prayer, when he is made to repeat it thrice in the presence of the head *pōngyā*, (Buddhist monk and teacher), exchanging his ordinary clothes for those of a *pōngyā*, and remaining in the *kyauung* under a name given by the *pōngyā*. This name begins or ends with one of the following letters, according to the day of his birth,—

Sunday = *a*, *ā*, or *ā*, as *Sanā*,⁶ &c.

Monday = *ka*, *k'a*, *nga*, or *ka*, as *Kāliya*, &c.

Tuesday = *sa*, *s'a*, or *na*, as *Santa*, &c.

Wednesday = *ya*, *la*, or *wa*, as *Wilās'a*, &c.

Thursday = *pa*, *p'a*, or *ma*, as *Pansikta*, &c.

Friday = *s'a*, or *ha*, as *S'āna*, &c.

Saturday = *ta*, *t'a*, or *na*, as *Nanta*, &c.

The name thus given is retained for life. In the case of girls the name is given by an elder of the village, and not by a *pōngyā*.

Adoption is practised, but is followed by no special ceremony. If the adopting father have no issue, then the adopted son gets all the property. If there be issue, either before or after the adoption, the adopted son gets half the share of the rightful issue or issues, who get equal shares. The same rule is followed with regard to the property of the real father of the child adopted.

No ceremonies are performed at Puberty, either in the case of boys or girls.

Marriage is permissible with any caste or creed. If a person of either sex dies without marrying, the body, before burial, is banged against a tree-stump, which is, for the time being, considered to represent the husband or wife. This ceremony is performed in the belief that, if omitted, the person would, in his or her next existence, again die unmarried.

A young man, taking a fancy to a young woman, visits the latter's house and woos her, and, if the liking be mutual, she accompanies him to his house as his wife. On the following morning the parents of the young man visit the parents of the young woman with an offering of salt and tea, make known to them the fact of the union of their respective children, beg that their own child may be forgiven for the intrusion, and request the fixing of a day for the marriage ceremony. This request being granted and the day fixed, the young woman returns to her parents. Sometimes the young man on proposing to the girl is referred to her parents, in which case he sends his parents with an offering of salt and sugar to propose for the girl and obtain the sanction of her parents to fix a day for their wedding.

On the day appointed the relatives of both parties, and the parties themselves, collect in the house of the girl.

The bridegroom, taking with him a bundle of tea (one viss) and a bundle of salt (one viss) tied together, and in them as much money as he can afford to give the parents of the girl as compensation, places his presents before them, and proposes for their daughter. The two bundles are then untied by the parents and the money extracted,

* [The regulation viss 3·65 lbs. (avoirdupois); but this was about 2½ lbs. only.—Ed.]

⁶ *as in the original.*

⁶ *See in the qualifying prefix and not part of the name*

proper. [In the above we have the ordinary Brahmanical system of nomenclature. The remaining customs previously indicated have many parallels among non-Brahmanical natives in India.—Ed.]

after which one of the elders of the village takes the tea and the salt out into the main road, and holding them above his head calls on heaven, earth and sun to witness the union of the two parties. He then re-enters the house, and ties a cord of seven threads round the left wrist of the bride and one round the right wrist of the bridegroom. This is called the matrimonial bond.

The bridegroom next distributes money to the elders of the village and all sit down to a feast.

The bride with all her worldly goods now accompanies the bridegroom to his house, but they are stopped on the road by bachelor friends of the bridegroom, who has to pay his way through them.

Formal marriage is, however, dying away, and marriage now often means cohabitation by mutual consent.

Divorce is by mutual consent of both parties, who give each other letters⁷ of freedom to remarry, &c.

If the wife claims a divorce and the husband is not willing, the wife has to pay Rs. 30 to be divorced. If the husband claims a divorce, he forfeits all his household property to his wife.

The forbidden degrees of consanguinity may be thus stated. A man shall not marry his,—

- (1) mother,
- (2) grandmother,
- (3) sister,
- (4) aunt,
- (5) wife's mother,
- (6) wife's grandmother,
- (7) wife's aunt.

And *vice versa* with a woman. All other ties are allowed.

A man may have several wives. A woman cannot have more than one husband. Polygamy is sanctioned, as man is believed to be the superior and master of woman. A man obtains a wife by wooing and with her consent; sometimes by purchase; and in case of rulers, as an offering of peace, friendship, &c.

A man is prohibited from cohabiting with his wife,—

- (1) during menstruation,
- (2) while she is in the act of suckling her child,
- (3) when she is ill,
- (4) on new moon and full moon days,
- (5) in the open, or in a *kyauing* or *sayat*,⁸

A widow is free to marry again and act as she pleases, no one in particular having any claim to her.

⁷ [On this Lieut. Henry Daly remarks that the letter is only given by the man, not by the woman. Lieut. Daly is the Superintendent of the Northern Shân States.—ED.]

The causes of disease are held to be,—

- (1) irregularities of diet,
- (2) change of water and climate (air),
- (3) evil spirits.

Diseases from (1) and (2) are treated by medicines (mostly herbs) and shampooing, from (3) by applying irritants, such as chilles to the eye. Children are never killed. Abortion is brought on by shampooing.

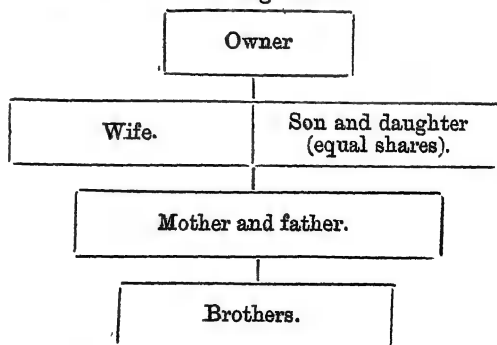
Death is considered to be the result of disease and the dead are buried. The corpse is dressed in new clothes. Clothes with a burn in them are never used under any circumstances for burial purposes, the body being buried naked rather than in such clothes. There is no belief in ghosts.⁹ The grave diggers, before getting out of the newly dug grave, sweep it out with brambles or thorns to prevent the *nâts* (spirits) from remaining in the grave.

Persons who have handled a corpse are required to bathe before re-entering the village.

No mourning garb is worn by a widow.

The officials (*Sābwās*, *Myôzās*, *Tamôns* and *Myôkhams*) decide all cases of murder. The murderer has to pay the following compensation. To the next kin of the victim, Rs. 333; to the official deciding the case, Rs. 333; to the *amats*, Rs. $\frac{2}{3}$; to the *sarès*, Rs. $\frac{2}{3}$; to the bailiff and messengers, Rs. $\frac{2}{3}$. If he cannot pay these sums his relations have to do so; if his relations cannot, his village; if his village cannot, his circle. If he belong to another clan or state, and refuse to pay the fine, then war is declared between the two states. If two brothers fight and one is killed the whole family are made to forfeit their worldly goods (household). When a murderer pays the compensation he is set free and no slur or stain is attached to him.

Individual property is recognized and inheritance takes the following course:—



⁸ This equals the Indian *dharmaśāstra*.

⁹ [Lieut. Daly says that "this statement is, I believe, incorrect."—ED.]

It will be thus seen that property descends to the children and wife, the wife taking 50 per cent. and the children equal shares of the remainder. The eldest son gets the household property, arms, and precious stones. If there be no children the wife is heir; if no wife, the parents; and if the parents are dead, the deceased's brothers divide.

A title or seat (Sabwaship, &c.) descends to the sons in order of birth.¹⁰ If there be no sons to the daughter's husband, if she be married; if not, to the brothers.

Everything is eaten, only human flesh being forbidden. Men, women and children all eat together. Cannibalism is practised very seldom, and only by the Bo, or leader of an army. If he be tattooed in a peculiar manner, he eats the flesh of an enemy who has been shot. This is said to render the charm of the tattooing stronger and more permanent.

The ground is tilled with a crude plough. The first produce (a portion) is prepared and taken as an offering to a *kyauing* before any is eaten by the household.

Each man is said to tell his prayers before setting out on a warlike expedition. The wife of the warrior,—

- (1) rests and does no work on every fifth day;
- (2) fills an earthen goblet with water up to the brim and puts some flowers into it every day. A decrease of the water or the withering of the flowers is looked upon as an evil sign (death);
- (3) sweeps clean, and lays out, her husband's bedding every night;
- (4) is prohibited from sleeping in his bed during his absence.

Mutilation of enemies is carried on to a great extent. The heads are always cut off and brought to the Chief, who gives a reward for every head, according as the head is that of an important or ordinary man.

The country is governed by Chiefs whose office is supposed to be hereditary and not elective, and descends as above explained.

The following story is told of the origin of the Shāns and of their government. A man, aged 5,000 years, started from the east in search of a wife, and at about the same time a woman, aged 5,000 years, started from the west in search of a husband. These two met in the middle of the Shān States and then became man and wife. They had eight

sons and seven daughters, who multiplied in their turn and gave rise to a large population. The eight sons and their respective children clamoured for the rulership over the descendants of the daughters, when their language became confused and they then separated and went their respective ways, with their children and clans. The names of the eight sons were—

- (1) Ai.
- (2) Ai Yi.
- (3) Ai S'am.
- (4) Ai S'ai.
- (5) Ai Ngo.
- (6) Ai Nu.
- (7) Ai Nök.
- (8) Ai Nai.¹¹

Not being able to agree as to who should be the Chief, and quarrelling amongst themselves, the eldest two sons and their children heard of the existence of two kings to the north, and went there to invite them to come and rule the Shān country. These two kings are said to be the sons of K'un Sang, the Chief of the Heavens, who sent them to deliver the Shān country. The emigrant Shāns invited them to come and rule their country, and promised to supply and give them every comfort, and to obey and follow their commands.

On the way home the party met a man called Sang P'an,¹² who expressed a desire to follow the two kings, and they in turn promised to provide for him.

After a short distance they met another man, who called himself Tūriya, and was a songster. He also joined the party, and they all arrived at Sanpūralit, now in the south-east.

The eight essentials of a city (*angkamóngpit pōng*) were attended to, namely,—

- (1) Market.
- (2) Water-supply.
- (3) Palace buildings.
- (4) [?]
- (5) Fields.
- (6) Monastic buildings.
- (7) Heads of armies (*bōs*).
- (8) Roads.

The names of the two first rulers are—

- (1) Mahā-K'attiya Yāza.
- (2) Mahā-S'amp'engna Yāza.¹³

The first improved agriculture and the second introduced weapons.

¹⁰ [See ante, Vol. XX. p. 422, as to the Manipūrit rule of descent.—Ed.]

¹¹ [Compare the male nomenclature above.—Ed.]

¹² This man and his generations represent the Amat class, and the two "kings" the Sabwā class.

¹³ [For (1) read Mahā-Kshatriya-Rāja and for (2) read (?) Mahā-Sampunna-Rāja. However, compare these names and that of Sanpūralit with the following from the *Mahāvāsavin* (*Mahārājavamsa*), or Chronicle of the Burmese kings:—"Gautama Buddha, in the fifth year

On arrival they found an engraved stone, with inscriptions said to have been written by the deities to guide them in ruling the country.

All Sabwās are said to be descendants of the two first rulers and the officials of Sang P'an and Tūriya.

The earth is supposed to have been brought from the depths by a species of white-ant. The depth is 84,000 *yāsands*,¹⁴ the height 84,000, and the shape square. Nine spirits from above came down and then established earth, water, heavens, and religion. They divided the world into 16 divisions. The story of the division is as follows:—

A lotus with four leaves flowered between three stones. Then the Myinmo mountain, which was 84,000 *yāsands* within the waters, and 84,000 *yāsands* above, then appeared. It was surrounded by seven mountains, namely, (1) Wikant'o, (2) Yōkkantala, (3) Ēks'engdala, (4) Nēmengdala, (5) S'udatsana, (6) As'ana, (7) Gandama. These are the world, which was divided into four great islands, namely, (1) Pōp'a Widēha, or the Eastern Island; (2) Amyagawya, or the Western Island; (3) Guru-Utang, or the Northern Island; (4) Sampudīpa, or the Southern Island. This last was subdivided into 16 countries. These having been formed, nine Brahmans came down from heaven and created man, animals, trees, flowers, fruits, grain, and water.¹⁵

MATERIALS FOR CALCULATING THE DATE OF SUNDARA-PANDYA.

The island of Srirāṅgam near Trichinopoly bears two ancient temples, one of Vishnu which is called Ranganātha, and one of Śiva which is called Jambukēśvara in Sanskrit and Tiruvāṇai-kkōyil in Tamil. Within the second of these two temples, my First Assistant, Mr. V. Venkayya, discovered an inscription of Sundara-Pāṇḍya, which promises to settle the date of this king within narrow limits. The inscription is engraved on the south wall of the second *prākāra* which I was not permitted to enter. The subjoined transcript of its first lines is made with the help of another identical inscription, the date of which is lost, on the west wall of the third *prākāra*.

TEXT.

1 Svasti śrīṣ ॐ Svasti Samasta-jagad-ādhāra
Sōmakula-tilaka Madhurāpura-Mādhava Kēraḷa-

of his Buddhahood, was presented by the two brothers Mahāpūrṇa and Chūḷapūrṇa with a sandalwood monastery situated at Vāṇijjagāma, otherwise called Lēgaing, in Sunāpuranta." Lēgaing is in the Minbu District of Upper Burma. Mahāpūrṇa and Chūḷapūrṇa are otherwise known as Mahāsambhava and Chūḷasambhava, sons of Labaduka, adopted son of Thadonāṅanaing, first mythological king of Tagaung. The legends given, ante,

vamśa-nirmūlana Lāṅkādvīpa-luṇṭana-dvītiya-
Rāma Chōḷakula-śaila-kulīśa Karmātarāja-
vidrāvana Kāthaka-kari-kūṭapākala vividha-ripu-
durgga-marddana Vira-Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla-vipina-
dāvadhana Kāñchi-puravar-ādhīśvara-Gaṇa-
pati-hari-

2 na-sārdḍūla Nellūrapura-virachita-virā-
bhishēka pranata-rāja-pratishthāpaka mahā-
rājādhirāja-paramēśvara ॐ Kō=Chchadaipāṇ-
mar-āṇa Tribhuvāṇachchakravarttigal emman-
ḍalamun=konḍ-aruliya śrī-Sundara-Pāṇḍiya-
dēvar[ku] yāṇḍu lōvadu pattāvadu Rishabha-
nāyarru apara-[pa]kshattu Budan-kijamaiyum
prathamaiyum perṇa A[ṇi]-

3 lattu-nāl.

TRANSLATION.

A.—Sanskrit portion.

Hail! Prosperity!

Hail! The support of the whole world, the ornament of the race of the Moon, the Mādhava (Krishna) of the city of Madhurā, the uprooter of the Kēraḷa race, a second Rāma in plundering the island of Lankā, the thunderbolt to the mountain (which was) the Chōla race, the dispeller of the Karmāta king, the fever to the elephant (which was) the Kāthaka (king), the destroyer of the strongholds of various enemies, the jungle-fire to the forest (which was) Vira-Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla, the tiger to the deer (which was) Gaṇapati (who was) the lord of Kāñchi the best of cities, he who was anointed as a hero in the town of Nellūr, who re-established those kings who prostrated themselves before him, the mahārājādhirāja-paramēśvara:—

B.—Tamil portion.

In the 10th—tenth—year (cf the reign) of (this) king (kō) Jaṭavarman, alias the emperor of the three worlds, the glorious Sundara-Pāṇḍyadēva, who was pleased to conquer every country,—on the day of (the nakshatra) Anurādhā, which corresponded to Wednesday, the first *tiṭhi* of the second fortnight of the month of Rishabha.

Among the enemies of whose conquest the king boasts in the Sanskrit preamble of his inscription, there are two names of individuals, viz. Gaṇapati, the lord of Kāñchi, and Vira-Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla. The dates of each of these are known from other sources. An inscription of the

Vol. XVIII p. 272ff. and Vol. XIX. p. 437ff. read with this one go far towards settling the origin of these garbled Shān tales. Sanpūralit is possibly the Chanda-purī on the Mēkong of Yule and other writers.—Ed.]

¹⁴ A *yāsana* (*yijana*) is the measure of the distance the eye can reach.

¹⁵ [The Indian origin, probably through Buddhist tradition, of the above folktales is obvious.—Ed.]

Kākatiya king **Gaṇapati** of **Orugallu** (**Worangal**) which is found in the **Ēkāmrānātha** temple at **Kāñchīpura**, and which I shall shortly publish in this *Journal*, is dated on Tuesday, the 11th *tithi* of the dark fortnight of **Jyāishṭha** of **Śāka** 1172, the cyclic year **Saumya**, which corresponds to Tuesday, the 8th June 1249 A. D. According to a Telugu chronicle (*Taylor's Catalogue*, Vol. III. p. 488) and an inscription of his successor (*Sewell's Lists of Antiquities*, Vol. I. Appendix, p. xx), king **Gaṇapati** died in **Śāka** 1180. **Vīra-Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla** is very probably identical with **Kaṇḍa-Gōpālādēva**, whose date is established by three other **Kāñchī** inscriptions, the beginnings of which are subjoined:—

NO. I.

On the south wall of the so-called "rock" (malai) in the Arulala-Perumāl temple.

Svasti śrī **Śākara-yāṇḍu** 1187 perṇa **Tiribuvaṇa-ehchakkara**[r]ttigal śrī-vijaya-**Kaṇḍa-Gōpālādēva**rkkku yāṇḍu 15vadu **Miduṇa-nāyaṛṇu** apara-pakshattu trayōdaśiyum **Ṣaṇi-kkila**mayum perṇa **Rōṣaṇi-nāl**.

Hail! Prosperity! In the 15th year (of the reign) of the emperor of the three worlds, the glorious and victorious **Kaṇḍa-Gōpālādēva**, which corresponded to the **Śāka** year 1187, — on the day of (the *nakshatra*) **Rōhini**, which corresponded to Saturday, the thirteenth *tithi* of the second fortnight of the month of **Mithuna**.

NO. II.

On the north wall of the second prakāra of the Ēkāmrānātha temple.

Svasti śrī **Śākara-yāṇḍu** 1187 perṇa **Tiribuvaṇa-ehchakkara**[r]ttigal śrī-viśāya-**Kaṇḍa-Gōpālādēva**r[k*]ku yāṇḍu 1[6]vadu **Simha-nāyaṛṇu** apara-pakshattu tritīyayum **Ṣaṇi-kkila**mayum perṇa **Uttirāḍattu-nāl**.

Hail! Prosperity! In the 1[6]th year of etc., which corresponded to the **Śāka** year 1187, — on the day of (the *nakshatra*) **Uttarāshāḍhā**, which corresponded to Saturday, the third *tithi* of the second fortnight of the month of **Simha**.

NO. III.

On the same wall as No. I.

Svasti śrī **Śākara-yāṇḍu** 118[7] perṇa **Tiribuvaṇa-ehchakkara**[r]ttigal śrī-viśāya-**Kaṇḍa-Gōpālādēva**rkkku yā[n*]ḍu 1[6]vadu **Simha-nāyaṛṇu** apara-pakshattu tritīyayum **Ṣaṇi-kkila**mayum perṇa **Uttirāḍādi-nāl**.

Hail! Prosperity! In the 1[6]th year of etc., which corresponded to the **Śāka** year 118[7], — on the day of (the *nakshatra*) **Uttara-Bhadrpadā**, which corresponded to Saturday, the third *tithi* of the second fortnight of the month of **Simha**.

According to an inscription of the **Dharmēśvara** temple at **Manimangalam** in the **Chingleput** district, **Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla** bore the surname **Madhurāntaka-Pottappi-Chōḷa**. A comparison of the dates of Nos. I. and II. shews that his accession must have taken place between the months of **Mithuna** and **Simha** in the **Śāka** year 1172. The units of the two dates of No. III. are not absolutely certain. If the published reading is correct, the details would be identical with those of No. II, with the exception of the *nakshatra*. In this case either **Uttirāḍam** or **Uttirāḍādi** might be a mistake for the other.

The manner in which the year of the accession of **Sundara-Pāṇḍya** might be fixed on the basis of these new data, will be as follows:—The upper limit for the date of the inscription of **Sundara-Pāṇḍya** is **Śāka** 1172, as the fight between him and **Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla** might have taken place in his 10th year, in which his inscription is dated, and also in **Śāka** 1172, the year of the accession of **Kaṇḍa-Gōpāla**. The lower limit is **Śāka** 1190, as the fight between him and **Gaṇapati** might have taken place in his first year, and also in **Śāka** 1180, the year of the death of **Gaṇapati**. The details of the date of the inscription must accordingly be applied to each of the **Śāka** years 1172 to 1190, and the year of the accession of **Sundara-Pāṇḍya** will fall between **Śāka** 1162 and 1180.

The **Sundara-Pāṇḍya** of the **Jambukēśvara** inscription may, accordingly, be identical with **Marco Polo's** "Sender Bandi," who was reigning in A. D. 1292, and with that "Sundar Bandi," who, according to the **Muhammadan** historians, died in A. D. 1293 (*Dr. Caldwell's Comparative Grammar*, Introduction, p. 141; *History of Tinnevely*, p. 33). The "Pāṇḍya king **Sundara**," who is mentioned in a **Siṃhalese** chronicle (*J. As Soc. Bengal*, Vol. XLI. Part I. p. 200) as a contemporary of **Parākramabāhu** of **Ceylon** (1153 to 1186 A. D.), does not appear to have been a reigning king, but a mere prince and general of a **Pāṇḍya** king **Kulaśekhara**, whose predecessor was a **Parākrama-Pāṇḍya**, and whose successor was a **Vīra-Pāṇḍya**. That there was at least one still earlier **Sundara**, may be gathered from the inscriptions of **Rājendra-Chōḷa**, who boasts to have conquered "the crown of **Sundara**" (*South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. I. p. 99; Vol. II. p. 108).

E. HULTZSCH.

After the above note was in type, I received a letter from Mr. S. B. Dikshit, dated **Dhulia**, 11th March, in which he states that **Śāka** 1182 expired is the only year that answers for the details of the inscription of **Sundara-Pāṇḍya**.

E. H.

Nundidroog, 16th March 1892.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

ECLIPSE-CUSTOMS IN MADRAS.

A peculiar sanctity is attributed to eclipses in general. Among the Brāhmins it is considered most sacrilegious to take food during the period of the eclipse. The food should be taken generally fully eight hours before the first contact, and at first contact everybody, including children, should bathe. A bath in the sea or a river is considered the most efficacious. Previous to bathing, the family priest generally goes through certain rites with a view to washing away all the sins of the party. After the bath, alms are freely distributed to the poor, and when the last contact is over, or after the clearance of the eclipse, there is a second bath, and then the worshippers may take their food.

A peculiar feature in eclipse customs is, that when the eclipse falls on a day, the presiding *nakshatra* of which is the same as that of a person's horoscope, there is fear of its having an evil influence on his futurity. To ward off this the priest has to perform counteracting ceremonies, and to distribute alms freely to the poor, or break a few of both ash-coloured and white gourds. The person influenced for evil as above is also advised to tie round his forehead a small palmyra leaf, on which are written a few Sanskrit verses, in expiation of his or her sins, as the case may be.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

GLIMPSES INTO A BHIL'S LIFE.

I once purchased a quiver, filled with arrows, which had been in the possession of a Bhil of some standing. In a pocket in the quiver were found three documents in the vernacular, of which I now give a partial rendering. They are very characteristic of the people to whom the owner belonged.

First came a scrap of a letter to the following effect: — "In the Jêrâ (? जैर) District, Jamnâ Bhanbhûji's son is charged with theft from the house of Manâ Minâ. She states that so far her

son has never stolen anything. If she has lied to her uncle, let her be convicted before the *pañchayat*. Convey our welfare. *Kâṭak badî pañchamî*, St. 1934 (Oct. 1877). Witnesses to the good conduct of Jamnâ Bhanbhûji's son: — Thâkursî Patêl, Baldêvâ Patêl, Dungarsî Patêl, Bhagwânâ Patêl. Signed by Channâ Patwârî: the above statement of Jamnâ Bhanbhûji is correct."

Next comes a small scrap of paper giving the name of eighteen persons, all Hindus, who owed the writer Rs. 40-4-0 between them, in sums varying from 12 annas to Rs. 5.

Lastly is a short daily "account of expenditure with one Ali Bakhsh from *Asauj* (Sept.) *sudî 13mî*, St. 1934 (1877)." It is in five columns, headed respectively flour (*âtâ*), pulse (*ddl*), *ghî* molasses (*gur*) and tobacco, with an occasional note of cash borrowed, and extends from *Asauj sudî 13mî* to *Kâṭak badî 8mî*, or 11 days.

On *Asauj sudî 13mî* the owner must have laid in a stock, for we find him procuring:— *âtâ*, 10 *sêrs*: *ddl*, 1 *sêr*: *ghî*, 1 *sêr*: *gur*, 1 *sêr*: *tamâkhâ*, 6 *pât*: *paisâ*, 3 *pât*. He bought his *âtâ*, *ddl*, and *ghî* regularly every day thereafter, and his *gur* and tobacco occasionally only. Money he seems to have borrowed in very small quantities. He bought his *âtâ* alternately 1 *sêr* 8 *chitâks*, and 12 *chitâks*: his *ddl* nearly always 6 *chitâks*: and his *gur* nearly always 3 *chitâks*. Including his stock on *Asauj sudî 13mî*, he purchased altogether *âtâ*, 35 *sêrs*, 2 *chitâks*: *ddl*, 6 *sêrs*, 12 *chitâks*: *ghî* 4 *sêrs*, 3 *chitâks*: *gur*, 2 *sêrs*, 10 *chitâks*. He also bought 6 *chitâks* of sugarcane. The ruling rates for these articles were *âtâ*, 16 *sêrs*: *ddl*, 10 *sêrs*: *ghî*, 3 *sêrs*: *gur*, 10 *sêrs*. His total expenditure was Rs. 4-14-6, including 1 anna and 3 pies borrowed in cash, in these eleven days, of which nearly one-fourth was on the first day for some reason, leaving an expenditure of Rs. 3-12-0 in ten days, or (say) Rs. 11-4-0 in a month; wherefrom it is to be assumed that our unknown friend was a man of substance in his village.

R. C. TEMPLE.

BOOK-NOTICES.

HANDBOOK OF THE HAKA OR BAUNGSHÉ DIALECT OF THE CHIN LANGUAGE, by LIEUT. D. J. C. MACNABB, B. S. C., Political Officer, Haka.¹

That the wild Chins and other mountaineers on the Burman Frontier are at present receiving an especial measure of attention is due to the possession by them of no peculiarly in-

teresting qualities, but solely to their persistent and inveterate habit of raiding. These raids have taken place with entire impartiality, both against other hill-men living without the pale, and against the more civilised inhabitants of the plains. As has been pointed out by Mr. McCabe with reference to the cognate Nâgâ tribes, each

¹ Bangoon, printed by the Superintendent, Government Printing, Burma, 1891.

village is frequently foreign country to its neighbours, and raid and counter-raid are carried on with little intermission and in the most blood-thirsty manner. This state of things could not, of course, be permitted to continue in the presence of a civilised power, and as nothing short of annexation was shown to have the slightest effect on these wild hill-men, their country has been received into the British Empire, and measures have been taken to establish in the hill country the *Pax Britannica*, which already prevails in the neighbouring plains. This has, of course, necessitated the presence amongst the wild Chins of British officers, who, in accordance with the wise foresight of the Government, have been encouraged to make themselves familiar with the language of the people whose destinies they control. The present manual, which is designed for the use of military and other officers in Hâkâ and its vicinity, is the work of Mr. Macnabb, the Political Officer stationed at that place, and is one of the first results of the new régime. The language is that known as the Baungshê or Hâkâ Chin, which language we are told in the Preface is spoken over a considerable tract of country. Slight dialectic variations, it is true, occur in different parts, but these do not appear to be so important as one might be lead *à priori* to suppose.

One direct result, indeed, of the internecine warfare referred to is the creation of many petty dialects, which, in the case of the Manipûris, have caused travellers to state that the language spoken in certain villages is unintelligible to their neighbours twenty or thirty miles away. Whilst, however, admitting that the conditions of life in the wild forest-covered mountains of the Arakan Yôma are favourable to the propagation of petty dialectic changes, it may reasonably be doubted whether there is much real divergence in the language spoken by different villages of the same tribe. Slight variations in the pronunciation of certain vowels, or in the retention or elision of final consonants, will frequently make alterations in words, which, though sufficiently small in a written language, will often render sentences unintelligible to obtuse savages, and even to educated Europeans, who are not well versed in the language.* Of course, also, the absence hitherto of books or writings amongst these savages is eminently conducive to the growth of different dialects, but again there is a strong counteracting tendency in

the pertinacity with which the Mongoloid races retain intact the root words of their languages.²

In the present case it may be taken that we have before us the language spoken by a large and important body of these hill-men, and the information concerning it, now for the first time brought to the public-eye, cannot fail to throw an interesting light on the ethnic relations generally of the Chins and their cognate races. Before however examining the philological aspects of the Baungshê or Hâkâ Chin Language it may be well to point out a few apparent errors in the book before us. I shall do so in no cavilling spirit, being well aware of the difficulties and pitfalls which await him who for the first time reduces a foreign language to writing; but without laying claim to any knowledge of the language itself, a comparison of the sentences and vocabulary in this book with those already published of Lushai and its cognate dialects will show, that there are a few mistakes, which may with advantage be corrected in a second edition.

Mr. Macnabb has, in writing Chin, wisely chosen the Roman character in preference to the Burmese one, and has selected with slight alteration the Government system of vowel transliteration. This is a most fortunate circumstance, as it both facilitates comparison of the language with others, and enables the learner to grasp at once the various sounds used in speaking. It is to be hoped that the same course will be followed by pioneers in the other hill languages and dialects, and that the error of the American Missionaries in using a garbled version of the Burmese alphabet (itself drawn from Aryan sources), in writing Karen, will not be repeated.

Objection may be taken to two divergences from the Government system, namely the transliteration of short *o* as in 'upon' by *ô*, and of short *a*, as *u* in 'full,' by *û*. In the former case it would obviously be preferable to write the *o* without any mark at all, since the sound in 'upon' is simply that of the ordinary short *o*, (not found in Burmese).³

The transliteration of the undefined vowel by *û* is unquestionably wrong and misleading. This vowel is etymologically *a*, as is shown, for instance, by the words for 'rupee' (*tânkâ*), 'reward' (*lâk-saung*), and 'path' (*lûmb*), which are the derivatives respectively of the Hindustânî word *tankâ*, the Burmese *lak-s'aung* (*let-s'aung*), and the

² [e. g., the Hindi *bântnâ* is the Pâñjâbî *vandnâ*, words instantly recognizable as the same on paper, but not so in speech.—ED.]

³ [The experience of British officers in the Chin Hills is clearly that of those who have to deal with savage languages generally. E. g., the remarks of the late

Bishop Pattison on the languages of the Pacific Islands, and the experience of Mr. Man in the Andamans.—ED.]

⁴ [The representation of *o* in 'upon' by *ô* is, of course, clearly misleading, but I think it requires a diacritical mark nevertheless. "Ordinary short *o*" is usually understood to have the sound of *o* in 'opaque,' found

Tibeto-Burman root *lam*. If it is considered necessary in writing to distinguish this vowel from that in the word 'man' some simple diacritical mark such as *u*⁵ would probably suffice, or perhaps Mr. Sweet's Anglo-Saxon *æh* might do

Again, is it correct to talk of *t* preceding *s* or *z* as an aspirate? The latter expression is usually applied to a breathing of some kind, and indeed the sounds referred to are simply inchoate palatals and not aspirated sibilants.

It is doubtless through an oversight that such pre-Hunterian words as 'a-*leen*,' 'warm,' 'a-*keek*,' 'cool,' 'like,' 'to catch,' occur in the book. These should apparently be written *alēn*, *akik*, and *lākik*.

On examining the vocabularies in the book, one of the first things to strike the eye is the prefixing of *k'* to all verbal roots, which seems at first strange, as no known cognate language possesses this peculiarity. A comparison, however, with Lushai, (which will be shown to be the language most nearly related to Baungshê Chin), shows that this *k'* or *ka* is in reality the shortened or reduplicated form of the first personal pronoun *kēmā*. This particle is, of course, a distinct word, and has nothing to do with the verbal root; and it is, therefore, unfortunate that it should have been confused with the latter. The error has doubtless arisen from the difficulty, which has been pointed out by Professor Sayce,* in "getting a savage or barbarian to give the name of an object without incorporating it into a sentence or bringing it into relation with something else." It is, indeed, demonstrable that Mr. Hodgson, though aware of a precisely similar construction existing in Gyarung and other languages, has, in the case of vocabularies of dialects cognate to Baungshê Chin, been misled by this very particle *ka*, which he has mistaken for the well known *ka* prefix, found throughout the Tibeto-Burman family. In the present case the confusing of the pronoun *ka* with the root has led to several mistakes in the sentences; e. g., on page 6:—"Have you ever met me" should be *kēmā na mū-bal-maw*, and not *k'mū*; and on page 22:—"You are lying" should be *nannga na hlen* or *na hlen*, and not *na k'hlen*.

in Burmese, and not the sound of *o* in 'upon.' The late Mr. A. J. Ellis in his report on the Andamanese Language (*Presidential Address, Philological Society, 1882*) denoted *o* in 'upon' by *ō*.—ED.]

* [Mr. Ellis used *ā* in writing Andamanese. But the Andamanese have five *a* sounds, and unless Chins are blessed with an equal number I would suggest *ā* for *a* in 'man.'—ED.]

* *The Science of Language*, Vol. I. [I can endorse this from personal experience. It took Mr. Man and myself about a year to discover the peculiar pronominal prefixes

The word for 'fowl' is given throughout as *arr*, but *prima facie* it would seem somewhat doubtful whether there is any *r* sound in this word, which is obviously a corruption of the widespread root *wā*, meaning a bird or fowl. In no cognate language has this root a final *r*, nor is there anything to show that the *ra* suffix which has been pointed out by Mr. Hodgson in Tibetan and other languages occurs in Baungshê Chin. Without, therefore, presuming to lay down how these people pronounce the word, we would suggest that it is possibly *ā* pronounced in the 'heavy tone,' as it is called in Burmese. The fact also of its being a shortened or cut down form of the original root *wa* lends probability to its being pronounced in this tone.

It may here be remarked that no mention is made of tones in this book, but this can hardly be because they do not exist in Baungshê Chin. It would, indeed, be scarcely credible that this language, surrounded as it is on all sides by those using tones, should be destitute of these adjuncts, which are indeed universal amongst the South-Eastern Mongoloids. At the same time the subject of tones presents unusual difficulties to the European, whose ear can frequently scarcely distinguish between words in different tones, unless the fact of that difference is specially brought to his notice. Moreover, little has been done as yet towards solving the question of the best method of rendering tones when using the Hunterian system of spelling; so that in a handbook like the present one it was perhaps as well to avoid the subject. At the same time we should have been glad to be informed positively as to the existence of tones in Baungshê Chin, and if so, how many could be distinguished. Similarly, it would be interesting to know whether these Chins ever modify their vowels similarly to the German *umlaut*. The use of modified vowels is very common amongst the Mongoloid hill-men, not to speak of the Tibetans, and *a priori* it would seem probable that they exist in the Baungshê dialect. In their case no difficulty exists in writing, since the forms *ā*, *ē*, *ī*, *ō* and *ū* are universally understood. Possibly the word *short* 'to build,' (a stockade), should be written

of Andamanese, owing to this very cause. The savage will always say 'my leg,' 'your leg,' 'his leg' in preference to 'leg,' and when he speaks, as the Andamanese do, of *darchāgda*, *ngarchāgda*, and *archāgda* for the above expressions, and then proceeds to drop the final *da* in composition, the unassisted learner is apt to be puzzled; more especially when, as in Andamanese, there are seven varieties of these prefixes, having but little in common with each other and the ordinary words for 'I, you and he.'—ED.]

* *Mongolian Affinities of the Circassians*.

shôt, for it is very unusual, if not quite unknown, in this class of languages, to find an *r* prefixed to a final consonant. Similarly it may be surmised that *swark*, 'to come out' should be written *swāk*.*

In the list of the first ten numerals given at the end of the book the prefix *pa* occurs before each number. A reference to the text, however, shows that this *pa* is, as in Lushai, merely a numeral co-efficient, the Chins and Lushais placing it between the noun and the number, instead of last of all, as is the case in Burmese. The prefix *fan* before *kûl* or *kwê*, 'twenty,' is apparently a numeral co-efficient for some special class of nouns, as on page 25 there occurs the expression *mi-pa-kwê* for 'twenty men.' It would seem not improbable there are other numeral co-efficients in Baungshê Chin besides *pa* and *fan*. The suffixing of these particles immediately to the noun is, it may be remarked, a favorable example for Dr. Bleek's theory of the origin of grammatical gender.

To pass to particular words, the translation of *kût* as 'arm' is apparently wrong, since in Lushai and other cognate dialects it means 'land,' and, in fact, in the Vocabulary at the end of the book the word *abân* is given for 'forearm.' Similarly on the same analogy it seems open to doubt whether the Baungshê Chins do not possess a distinct word for 'leg' apart from *ke*, 'foot.'

The word *pā* which properly means 'father' is given for 'man,' both on page 3 and in the Vocabulary, but a reference to the Sentences shows the word used for 'man' is *mi*, an extremely widespread root. *Pā* is possibly used, as in other languages of the Tibeto-Burman family, as a suffix meaning 'male.'

The word *ngā*, given in the Vocabulary on page 15, evidently means 'to know' and not 'to say,' and in practical use it would seem to correspond with the Burmese *tât*. Burmese and Chin, are, of course, far from being the only languages, which use the verb 'to know' in the same sense as 'to be able.'

Exception may be taken to the giving of different adjectives (such as those of colour, 'deep,' &c.) in the form of nouns, *i. e.*, with short *a* prefixed. In the Tibeto-Burman family there are no such things as true adjectives, their place being taken by verbs; and the fact that in certain languages they are suffixed to the noun makes no difference.

The words given respectively for 'brother' and 'sister' probably denote either 'elder or younger brother or sister,' as it would be difficult to point to any language in the remotest degree cognate

to Chin, in which these relations are not distinguished by separate words, according as they are older or younger than the speaker.

Before leaving the subject it may be as well to point out that in a few cases the Chin sentence, as given in the manual, does not correspond with the English, even according to the freest translation. Thus, on page 20:—*Hi byè hi tā-tēmaw* obviously means "Is this word (or saying) true," and has nothing to do with the English sentence "I wish to get true information about this." Similarly in the next line.—*Nangma pakat-tè byé-sin kan-dū* should apparently be translated "I wish to speak to you alone," and not "Do you think your information is true?"

With regard to the place of Baungshê Chin in the Tibeto-Burman family, it must plainly be grouped with those of the other hill-men inhabiting the Arakan Yôma Mountains from Manipûr to their southern extremity. The principal languages or dialects comprised in this group are Manipûrî, Lushai (Dzo), Kami, Shandû, and the languages of the Wild and the Tame (or Southern) Chins.

Professor Sayce in his *Science of Language* has, it is true, adopted another classification, making two groups of them and including Burmese and Karen in the second group. A comparison, however, of the vocabularies and grammar of these hill tongues shows them to possess many special points of resemblance, which differentiate them, as a whole, from the Burmese.

These tribes are, in fact, in all probability a later immigration than the dwellers in the plains, and are more closely connected with Sub-Himalayan tribes, such as the Limbu, than is the case with the Burmans. The Manipûrîs, having for some time past masqueraded as Hindus, have altered their language more than is the case with the hill-tribes south of them, but they nevertheless belong to the same group. Of the different languages spoken in it Baungshê Chin has a markedly close affinity with Lushai, as the following list of words identical in both proves:—

Bear	<i>vôm</i>	Day	<i>tsün</i>
Beat	<i>vel</i>	Dog	<i>û-i</i>
Before	<i>'mai</i>	Door	<i>în-kā</i>
Behind	<i>'nū</i>	Eye	<i>myit</i>
Bird	<i>vā</i>	Fall	<i>tlā</i>
Bite	<i>shā</i>	Fire	<i>mē</i>
Blood	<i>t'i</i>	Fish	<i>ngā</i>
Boar (wild)	<i>ngāl</i>	Fly	<i>tō</i>
Burn	<i>hang</i>	Fowl	<i>ā</i>
Cold	<i>shile</i>	Go	<i>kāl (kāl)</i>
Come	<i>hūn</i>	Good	<i>atū</i>
Daughter	<i>fānū</i>	Hand	<i>kūt</i>

* Compare also *mark*, 'to divorce' with the Lushai *māk*.

Head	<i>lū</i>	Seed	<i>asi</i>
High	<i>asang</i>	Sit	<i>t'ā</i>
House	<i>in</i>	Slave	<i>shal (shāl)</i>
Inside	<i>asūn</i>	Snake	<i>rāl</i>
Iron	<i>tir</i>	Son	<i>afā</i>
Looking-glass	<i>kla-lūng</i>	Stone	<i>lung</i>
Make	<i>tī</i>	Sweet	<i>aklūm</i>
Many	<i>tam (tūm)</i>	Thatch	<i>ài</i>
Near	<i>anai</i>	This	<i>hi</i>
Necklace	<i>t'i</i>	Tooth	<i>hā</i>
Nose	<i>ngū</i>	Weep	<i>tap</i>
Old	<i>ali</i>	Well (be)	<i>dam</i>
Pumpkin	<i>mai</i>	Which	<i>koi</i>
Rain	<i>rwa shūr</i>	Widow	<i>nū-'mè</i>
Reap	<i>ā</i>	Wish	<i>dū</i>
Red	<i>shen</i>	Yellow	<i>eng</i>
Ripe	<i>'min</i>	You	<i>nangmā</i>
See	<i>mū</i>		

In addition to the above list, which is taken almost at random and is very far from being exhaustive, there are many other words, such as *kaima* and *kēmā*, 'I,' which differ very slightly. Both from the number and nature of the allied words and from the character of their resemblances, it is apparent that the *Baungshé Chins* and *Lushais* must at no distant period have formed one race.⁹ Words like those for 'brass,' 'gong,' 'looking glass,' &c., which are the same in *Lushai* and *Baungshé Chin*, can only have been incorporated into these languages recently, whilst the fact that the *Chin* word for 'rupee,' *tankā*, is derived, like the *Lushai*, direct from the *Hindustāni* and not through *Burmese*, points to the inference that when first introduced to this coin these *Chins* were probably living to the west of their present habitat; i. e., in the *Chittagong Hill-Tracts*, where the *Lushais* still reside. At the same time it may be inferred, from the words for 'gun' in *Chin* and *Lushai* being different, that they had already separated when fire-arms were brought to these hills. It is noteworthy, also, that these *Chins* have an indigenous word for 'sea,' which would hardly be the case if they had resided long where they now are.

One of the points, in which *Baungshé Chin* agrees with *Lushai*, is in the use of the sound of *f* in certain words, this being a somewhat rare sound in *Tibeto-Burman* phonology. The sound of *f* is also used in *Kami*, which language together with *Lushai*, possesses the peculiar guttural breathing known in *Arabic* as *'ain*. No mention

of this latter sound is made in *Mr. McNabb's* work, so it may be that it is not found in *Baungshé Chin*.¹⁰ The sound *f* would seem to correspond with the *varga ch*, *ts* and *s* in the other *Tibeto-Burman* languages.¹¹ Both the *f* and *'ain* sounds are very sparingly used, and it is possible that they are foreign sounds introduced into the dialects, in which they occur by contact with some *Muhammadan* race.

The terminals *l*, *r*, and *p* still exist in *Baungshé Chin*, as in *Lushai*, though it is curious to note that, amongst the former, final *l* is not unfrequently elided. The example of the *Chinese* and *Burmans* shows that, with increasing laziness of pronunciation, these letters as terminals are apt to disappear.

One of the most noticeable points in the grammar of *Baungshé Chin* is that the present tense of the verb consists of the naked root without even a euphonical suffix.¹² It is, of course, open to doubt whether this omission is due to a really primitive method of conjugation, as in *Chinese*, or whether there was formerly some suffix, which has come to be elided. Perhaps the latter hypothesis is on the whole the more probable, as no other case apparently exists in the *Tibeto-Burman* family of this want of a suffix, and it can scarcely be contended that *Baungshé Chin* has alone retained the earliest form of conjugation.

The future particle is *lai*, which is, curiously enough, almost the same as that (*laik*) used in *Southern Chin* to denote compulsion, — 'must'. The latter is, however, compounded of the verb *ld* 'must' and *aih*, the future particle, in the same way as the *Burmese* *ra-māñ* (*yā-mā*). In one sentence, indeed, on page 19, *na ngai-lai* is given for 'you must obey,' but it can hardly be supposed that the particle of the future of compulsion has been given throughout in mistake for the simple future. The termination in *Lushai* is, it may be remarked, *ang*. The negative interrogative particles are respectively *lo* and *maw*, as in *Lushai*. The latter of these is evidently the *Chinese* *mo*, but the only analogy to the former outside this special family of languages is apparently the *Dravidian* *illei* or *alla*.

The present participle *lyo* in *Baungshé Chin* is probably allied with the *Burmese* *lyak* (*lyet*). It does not seem to have analogies in the other hill languages.

⁹ [I would, however, be cautious as to this assumption on philological grounds only.—*Ed.*]

¹⁰ [It should be remembered, however, that the sound of *ç* is seldom properly taught in *India*, with the result that the ears of the majority of *Anglo-Indians* are not so attuned as to catch it in learning a new language.—*Ed.*]

¹¹ The *Kami* *afā* 'tooth' is probably identifiable with the *Tibetan* *so*, *Burmese* *swā*.

¹² It is curious to note that the use of the pronouns with the noun and verb is the same in *Baungshé Chin* as in ancient *Egyptian*: though in the latter language they were suffixed and not prefixed. [But is this a remarkable peculiarity?—*Ed.*]

The suffix *ā* (the same as the old Burmese postposition *ā*) seems to have a wide range of meaning. Thus, after a noun it means 'by,' 'at' or 'to.' On page 16 after a verb it is used for 'in order to.' On page 29 it is similarly used for 'when.' In the examples in this latter case, under the head of "Imperfect Tense," there would, however, appear to be some confusion in the use of the *ā* particle, unless indeed we are to understand that Baungshê Chin is destitute of a particle to express conditions of time. In this case, the sentence—"When I saw him he was running away," would read literally in Chin "I saw him, he was running away."—a sufficiently primitive method of expression.

On page 36 the form given as a perfect tense *passive*, 'I have been brought,' is, if correct, a very remarkable one; since the passive meaning is given by infixing a particle *di* between the root and the ordinary perfect suffix *sang*. The formation of a passive in this manner is, however, so contrary to the genius of the Tibeto-Burman languages,¹³ that we may be excused in doubting the correctness of this form, which apparently does not occur in the Chin sentences.

No example is given of the relative participle which presumably exists in Baungshê Chin, but on page 20 there is an example of a curious construction instead of it, the expression 'the men who come and go' being translated *mi-klung, mīlāl*, literally 'man-arrive, man-go.'

In conclusion, a few words in Baungshê Chin may be selected for notice. Amongst those specially allied to Manipûri are *lamb* 'a path' and *arāl* 'to fight,' which correspond with the Manipûri *lambé* and *lāl*. The retention of the *l* suffix is especially noticeable, since although the root *lam* is widely diffused in the Tibeto-Burman family, there are apparently no other examples in it of this particle being suffixed to it.

Baungshê Chin has, like Magar and Karen, the form *ti* for water, as compared with the Lushai *tū-i*. It seems, however, unreasonable to regard this, with Captain Forbes, as a separate root, for a simple throwing forward of the accent in the word *tū-i* would probably suffice to alter it into *ti*. Further we have a precisely analogous alteration in the word for 'to laugh,' which in Lushai is *nū-i*, but in Baungshê Chin *ni*, and in this case there can be no doubt that the root is the same.

Generally speaking it would seem very extraordinary that the Baungshê Chins, who probably at no distant epoch formed one tribe with the Lushais, should yet have retained a different root from the latter for so common a word as 'water.'

In the matter of prefixes we have, in the word *nūl* for 'snake,' an example of the throwing off the *pa* prefix (cf. Tibetan *brūl* or *prūl*), and, in that for 'butterfly,' *plip*, an example of its addition, (Cf. Burmese *lip-pya*, (*lêk-pyā*).

In '*rūk*, 'mad,' we see the simple root *ru*, (*yū*), (as in Burmese), altered first by the aspiration of the initial semi-consonant, and secondly by the addition of the *k* suffix. An example of the *t* suffix is seen in *rāt* 'heavy' compared with the Burmese *lā*. If *kleng* 'to exchange' be the same as the Burmese *lā*, we have in one word both the *k* prefix and a nasal suffix, which alterations, however, as Mr. Hodgson has so ably pointed out, are common enough in this family of languages '*Ren*, "to bind," may be identified with the Burmese *k'ran* (*chan*), and is a good example of the close relation between *h* and *k* or *kh* (*k'*) in these languages: as also is *kīd*, 'to release' or 'to send,' cf. Burmese '*lwat* ('*lut*) with the same meanings.¹⁴ In the word for 'pony' (*rang*) the Baungshê Chins have dropped the initial nasal of the Burmese *mrang* (*myin*); and the same is seen with the word for 'elephant' *wi*, as compared with the Akyab Chin *mwi*. An example of vowel change is the Baungshê Chin *byē* (*Kami bē*), 'speech' compared with the Burmese *pyaw*, whilst the word *rwā* for 'bamboo' shows that the Burmese *wā* possessed formerly an initial semi-vowel *r*.

It is easily seen from a comparison of words that Baungshê Chin in many cases prefers *k* where Lushai has *t*, and indeed it would appear from other cases that these mountaineers generally are as prone to confuse these sounds together as the South Sea Islanders.

In comparing the Baungshê *klang-var* with the Lushai *tlang-val* 'a bachelor' we find, in addition to the above interchange of *k*, one of the semi-vowels *r* into *l*. A further instance of the latter appears in the Baungshê *ri* and the Lushai *lā*, 'again.' In the Chin *k'ōk* as compared with the Lushai *k'up* 'a knee,' we see that a phonetic corruption has taken place precisely similar to that in colloquial Burmese.

R. HOUGHTON, C. S.

¹³ This construction is, however, used in Turkish, e. g., *sev-it-mek* 'to be loved.'

¹⁴ Compare also Baungshê Chin *klan* (to lose) with Lushai *lā*, and *lā* 'to fear' with the Limbu *ke*. The

Manipûri *hum* 'three' is probably connected with the Baungshê *tūn*, through a lost *kūn*; since, though the equation *t-k-h* holds good in these languages, there is no example of *t* changing directly into *k*.

ANOTHER INSTALMENT OF THE BOWER MANUSCRIPT.

BY PROFESSOR A. F. RUDOLF HOERNLE.

THE first instalment of the Bower Manuscript was published by me in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* for 1891. The portion which I now publish I have chosen for the second instalment, because it represents another of the subjects which are treated of in the several treatises comprising the Bower Manuscript. So far as I can make out at present, these treatises deal with three different subjects, viz., medicine, divination and conjuration. On medicine there are (apparently) two distinct treatises; a long and a short one. The latter I have published in the *Journal A. S. B.*, as a specimen of medicine. On divination or fortune-telling there are two short treatises; one of these I publish in the present paper. On conjuration, or the use of magic spells, there is one short treatise. This I hope to publish as my next instalment of the Manuscript.

The portion now published consists of five leaves. Their shape and size are exactly like those of the portion previously published; that is, the leaves are a narrow oblong, measuring $11\frac{1}{2}$ by $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches. A specimen, being the obverse of the second leaf, is published in the lower part (No. II.) of Plate I., issued with the *April Proceedings* of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. The treatise to which it belongs is referred to in my paper "On the Date of the Bower Manuscript" (*ante*, p. 29)¹ as the "second portion, called B." I have there ascribed the writing of this portion, which is in a fine, ornate hand, to a scribe distinct from him who wrote the portion given in my first instalment. The most striking differences are the two following. In the first place, the palatal *ś* is made in the form of a square with a circular loop at the lower left-hand corner, exactly like the modern Nāgarī *m* (म), while in the portion given in the first instalment that letter has a rounded top, and no circular loop, but a minute forked tail. The latter is the older Gupta form, while the former already closely approaches the form shown in the Horinzi MS. and in the Sāradā alphabet, in which the letter is also square, but the loop is replaced by a dot. Both forms may be seen on Plate I., above referred to. In the second place, some letters, (especially *a*, *k*, *g*, *r*, and occasionally *t*, *ḍh*), are provided with a very distinct hook at the bottom of the main perpendicular. This hook looks exactly like the mark of the vowel *u*, as attached to other letters, such as *m*, *s*, *p*, &c. Accordingly, when the vowel *u* is to be joined to those hooked letters, it assumes a different shape, — that of a more or less large curve, turned to the left. Examples may be seen on the same plate.

Though written on five distinct leaves, the work inscribed on them only occupies eight pages. The obverse of the first leaf contains, as I have already stated elsewhere², the concluding portion of a medical treatise, but whether of the long one, or of some other, I am not, as yet, quite certain. At the bottom of this obverse page, there is the remark *ity=atra śvêté śvê-tasy=ādhipatyê śatasy=ādhipakaraṇe gūdā*, the meaning of which I do not understand. It is in large cursive letters, in a hand distinct from that which wrote the medical treatise, as well as from that which wrote the treatise on divination; which commences on the reverse of the leaf. It seems to be, however, the same handwriting as that which is seen in some other portions of the manuscript. The most natural conclusion that one can draw is, that the treatise on divination was written after the treatise on medicine, as it commences on the back of the latter.

The fourth leaf is inscribed only on the obverse. It consists of no less than four layers of bark, but they are all so thin and flimsy, that a considerable portion is broken and frayed. Even the obverse is only partially inscribed, and the reverse is probably thought by the scribe to be unfit for writing on. In any case nothing of the text is lost. That part of it which commences on the obverse of the fifth leaf, follows immediately after that which is written on the obverse of the fourth. In fact, the material used for this portion of the manuscript

¹ Also in *Journal Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LX., Part I., pp. 80, 81.

² See *Proceedings Asiatic Society of Bengal*, for April 1891, p. 5J.

is of the same (if not more) inferior description as that employed in the first portion, previously published.³ This also explains why only one half of the reverse side of the second leaf is inscribed. For here, too, no material portion of the text is lost.

The leaves are of varying thickness. None of them consists of less than four layers; but the second is of extraordinary thickness. It is difficult to count its layers; but there certainly do not seem to be less than twelve.

The part of the manuscript which I now publish is practically complete. The entire treatise which it contains must have consisted (as I shall show later on) of sixty-four verses. Of these the manuscript gives fifty-nine. Three of the missing verses should have been on the reverse of the second and the obverse of the third leaves. On the former page a "vāhula," numbered 234, is omitted; on the latter page two "bhadrās," numbered 412 and 124 are missing. There should be altogether six "vāhulas" and six "bhadrās"; but there are extant only five "vāhulas" and four "bhadrās." However, the numeral mark 412 is given in the manuscript (see fl. 3a³),⁴ though the corresponding "bhadrā" verse is missing. It seems quite clear from these circumstances, that the omission is merely an error chargeable to the scribe of the manuscript. The two other missing verses should have been at the end of the manuscript. They should have been the two "kharis," numbered 211 and 121. If they ever existed in the present copy, they must have been written on the obverse of a sixth leaf; for the extant "kharī" verse 112 closes the reverse of the fifth leaf. In that case, one leaf of the manuscript is lost, and this leaf might have contained the usual colophon, giving the names of the work and its author. But it seems to me doubtful whether a little work of this kind would have contained the usual colophon; and it is not improbable that the manuscript is complete, and that the omission of the two last verses is chargeable to the scribe, in the same way as the loss of the other three verses. The last words on the reverse of the fifth leaf are written in the middle of the line, leaving sufficient blank space to write more matter, if the scribe had intended to write any more. Moreover the whole is followed by a scroll, apparently indicative of the end. All this seems rather to suggest the alternative of the omission being due to the scribe; probably the original, from which he copied, was already incomplete.

There are many other points to show that the manuscript was not written with much care. Thus on fl. 2a⁴ and 2a⁵ the words *prathamā mālī* and *trītyā mālī* are omitted; on fl. 5a¹ and 5a³ we have *dvītyā* for *trītyā*; on fl. 5b⁴ the scribe has cancelled the words *trītyā pañchī* 212, though they were correct, and repeated them on fl. 5b⁵, where they are out of place; another blundered case occurs on fl. 1b⁶. Not unfrequently there occur *pādas*, or quarter-verses, which are short by one syllable. Generally it is the 3rd *pāda* (5 times: fl. 2a¹, 2a⁶, 3a⁶, 4a³, 5b⁴): twice it is the 4th *pāda* (fl. 2a⁴ and 3a⁸); once each it is the 1st (fl. 5a⁵) and 2nd *pādas* (fl. 5b³). In most of these cases the fault is certainly due to the carelessness of the scribe. Thus in fl. 3a⁶ probably *kālēna* should be read for *kālē*, in fl. 5a⁵ *vipula* for *pula*. But one or two cases are doubtful: in them the fault may be due to the anomalous nature of the language. Thus in fl. 2a⁶ *chaiva artha* should be read for (sandhi) *chaivārtha*; again in fl. 2a⁴ the synonymous *nīyataḥ* should be read for *nīyāt*. Occasionally the opposite case occurs, of a *pāda* having one syllable in excess. This always occurs in the 4th *pāda*, and in all probability is one of the anomalies of the language; (see below). There is only one exception; it is in fl. 5b⁵, where the excess occurs in the 3rd *pāda*, and is undoubtedly only a blunder of the scribe; as the sense of the verse shows that he should have written *aśubha* instead of *śubhāśubha*.

Undoubted clerical errors of another kind are the following: fl. 1b⁴ *svā* for *svāhā*; fl. 2a³ *kalyāṇī* for *kalyāṇī*; fl. 2a⁵ *arhā* for *arhō*; fl. 2a⁶ *nayam* for *ndyam*; fl. 2a⁶ *prāpsasi* for *prāpsyasi* and *arthaś=cha* for *arthañ=cha*; fl. 2b¹ *dharmāsyā* for *dharmasyā*; fl. 2b³ **muktas* for

³ See *Journal Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LX. Part I. p. 187.

⁴ The first number refers to the leaf, the letter to the page of the leaf, and the raised number to the line of the page; thus 2a³ = 2nd leaf, obverse page, 5th line.

muktās; fl. 3a¹ *chanunayishyasi* for *chānunayishyasi*; fl. 3a¹ **vṛittis=cha* for *vṛittēs=cha*; fl. 3a¹ **nā* for *na*; fl. 3a⁶ *sarvvaṇṭha* for *sarvvaṇṭhā*; fl. 3a⁶ **saṁśasyasi* for *saṁśasyati*; fl. 3a⁷ *sahāyās* for *sahāyās*; fl. 4a² *karaṇē* for *kāraṇē* (here shown by the metre); fl. 4a² *ya* for *yā*; fl. 5b⁴ *dharmā* for *dharmāṇ*; fl. 5b⁴ *vandhās=cha* for *vandhāṇ=s=cha*. Those cases, however, which are marked with an asterisk, may also be due to the anomalous character of the language.

Occasionally the scribe noticed a mistake and corrected it by interlinear insertions in minute and hastily drawn letters. Thus in fl. 3a⁴ *na saṁśayā*, fl. 4a³ *api*, fl. 4a⁶ *si cha*, fl. 5a³ *bha* are added interlinearly. Ordinary corrections, by alterations of already written letters occur; e.g., in fl. 2a⁷, 5b² and elsewhere.

The language of the manuscript in the early extra-scholastic Sanskrit of North-Western India with all its usual anomalies in orthography, grammar, prosody and vocabulary. Of these I have noted the following instances:—

1. In Orthography: spelling: fl. 1b⁵ *siṅgha* for *siṁha*, fl. 2a⁶ *avi* for *api*, fl. 4a³, 5a¹, &c. *dukkha* for *duḥkha*: confusion of sibilants; fl. 2a⁴ *saṁānvitā* for *śaṁānvitā*. Doubling of consonants: before *r*: throughout with *t*; e.g., fl. 1b⁶ *ṣattravas*, fl. 2a⁶ *yattra*, &c.: before *y*; *yātyakūraṇaṁ* (for *yāti=akūraṇaṁ*): before *v*; fl. 5a¹ *addhvānaṁ*. Sandhi: fl. 2b³ *dvitīyā kūtāḥ* for *dvitīyāḥ kūtāḥ*, fl. 4a¹ *gṛihaiva* for *gṛiha ēva* (*gṛihē ēva*), fl. 2a⁵ *tatōttamaḥ* for *tata uttamaḥ* (*tataḥ uttamaḥ*), fl. 5b² *suhṛidēva* for *suhṛidaiva* (*suhṛidā ēva*). Omission of final consonants: 3b⁴ *kiñchi* for *kiñchit*, 1b³, 2a³, 2b⁴ *kāraṇā* for *kāraṇāt* (abl. sing.). Omission of visarga: before *s*: fl. 3a⁷ *sumittrai saha* for *sumittraiḥ*, fl. 3a⁷ *dēvatai sprihā* for *dēvataiḥ*; fl. 2a² *nishphala sa* or *nishphalaḥ*; before *p*: fl. 1b³ *prāsakā* and *yuktā patantu*. Neglect of sandhi: fl. 2a⁶ *drīṣyātē āgamō*, fl. 2b³ *vijēśhyasi ripūṇ*, fl. 3a⁶ *arthaḥ anirvvedāṇ*.

2. In Grammar: declension: nom. sing.: fl. 1b¹ *namō āchāryēbhyah*: often visarga omitted in *pausā*; fl. 2a⁶ *uttama*, 2b¹ *pṛiti*, fl. 2b¹ *atiparikshaya*, fl. 5a⁴ *sandēha*, fl. 5a³ *lābha*, fl. 5b⁶ *saṁupasthita*: nom. neut.; fl. 3b² *janmaṇ*, fl. 4a² *karmaṇ*: acc. sing.; fl. 3b² *pratyarthin* (for *pratyarthinaṇ*): acc. plur. masc.; (as a rule ending in *āṇ*, etc.) fl. 2a⁴ *bhōgāṇ*, fl. 2b³, 5a² *ripūṇ* *sarvvaṇ*, fl. 5a⁶ *bhōgāṇ vipulāṇ*, fl. 5b² *kāmaṇ*, fl. 5b⁴ *yajñaṇ*, but regular in fl. 5b⁴ *vividhāṇ*: instr. sing. fem.; fl. 1b² *shashṭhyē* (for *shashṭhyai*): gen. plur.; fl. 1b³ *sarvvaśāśāṇ* (for *śāśāṇ*): loc. plur.; fl. 1b⁴ *riśhīshu* (for *riśhishu*). Conjugation: imp. for pres.; fl. 4a¹ *tishṭha* (for *tishṭhasi*): atm. for parasm.; fl. 2a², 3b⁶, 4a³ *prāpsyasē* (but fl. 3b⁶ also *prāpsyasi*), fl. 2a³, 3a¹, 3b⁵ *chintayasē*: parasm. for atm.; fl. 2a⁷ *pratīksha* (for *pratīkshasva*). Syntax: exchange of cases: nom. for acc.; fl. 2a⁶ *prāpsyasē* (for *prāpsyasē*) *n-āyam uttama* (for *na imam uttamam*), fl. 3a⁶ *sō 'rthah prāpsyasē* (for *tam arthan*), fl. 4a⁶ *lambhas=tu lapsyasi*, fl. 2a⁶ *arthaḥ=cha grihya*: nom. for instr.; fl. 3b⁴ *visriyas=tvam* (for *tvayā*), fl. 3a⁶ *sa saṁśasyasi* (for *tēna*: but see above): nom. for gen.; fl. 3a¹ *vṛittis=cha kshayaḥ* (for *vṛittēs=cha*: but see above); acc. for gen.: fl. 2a¹ *janir=upadravaṇ* (for *upadravasya*): gen. for dat.; fl. 1b² *marutāṇāṇ namaḥ*: loc. for dat.; fl. 2a⁴ *labhasē* (for *labhasya*). False concord: neut. and fem.; fl. 1b⁴ *vṛitis=satyāṇ* (for *satyā*); fl. 3a⁷ *viruddhaṇ sprihā* (for *viruddhā*): masc. and neut.; fl. 1b⁶ *nichōchchaṇ bhayaḥ* (for *nichōchhō*), fl. 3a³ *upasthitāṇ viśishtas=te* (for *viśishtāṇ*): perhaps sing. and plur.; fl. 2a⁵ *mahāṇ=arthā* (for *arthō*), fl. 2b³ *muktas=tē kilvishā* (for *muktās*).

3. In Prosody: occasionally the fourth pāda has one syllable in excess; see fl. 2b¹, 4a³, 4a⁶, 5a⁶.

4. In Vocabulary: new words or new meanings:—

karitra 'tools' (P), fl. 2a⁶.

chāṅga 'clever', fl. 2b³ (for *changa*, perhaps false reading).

dēva 'god', fl. 2a¹ (for *daiva*).

dēvata 'deity', fl. 1b⁴, 3a⁷ (for *daivata*).

putratvatā 'sonship', fl. 2a⁷ (with double abstract suffix).

prāguṇa 'safety,' fl. 5a⁴ (but also *prāguṇya* ibidem; perhaps a false reading).

vṛiti 'diagram,' 'a dice-board,' fl. 1b⁴.

spṛiḥa 'desire,' 'envy,' fl. 2a⁷ (for *sparḥa* or *spṛihā*).

To these words should be added all the technical names of groups of verses or throws of dice; thus:—

navikā 'an eulogy,' fl. 1b⁶ (a vernacular form of Skr. *navikā*, from *nava*; see my *Gauḍian Grammar*, § 195).

paṭṭabandha 'a decoration,' 'investiture,' fl. 2a¹.

kālavidhī 'the regulation of time,' fl. 2a¹, (apparently a synonym of *vidhī*; otherwise it would mean 'the piercing').

śāpaṭa 'imprecation,' 'abuse,' fl. 2a², (a bye-form of *śāpa*).

mālā 'garland,' fl. 2a⁴ (a vernacular form of Skr. *mālīkā*, cf. *Prākṛita Prakāśa* V, 24, Hṛmachandra III, 32, 34, and my *Gauḍian Grammar*, § 195).

vahula 'manifoldness,' fl. 2a⁵.

kūṭa 'a puzzle' (?), fl. 2b¹.

bhadrā 'cow,' fl. 2b³.

śakti 'power,' fl. 3a².

duṇḍubhī 'kettle-drum,' fl. 3a⁶.

vṛiṣa 'bull,' 3b⁴.

prēśhyā 'maid-servant,' fl. 3b⁶.

viṭṭi 'yellow sandal,' fl. 4a³ (in the smaller *Petersburg Dictionary*; or perhaps for *viṭṭi* 'a ball').

karṇa 'ear,' fl. 4a⁵.

sajā 'armour' (?), fl. 5a² (perhaps for *sajjā*).

kāṇa or *kāṇatantra*, fl. 5a⁴ and fl. 5a⁵ (or *kāṇatantra* fl. 5a⁶), 'one eyed,' also 'a crow.'

chuñchikūṇa, meaning unknown, fl. 5b¹ (see below).

pāñchī, fl. 5b³ or *pañchī* fl. 5b⁴ 'consisting of five' (see below).

kharī 'she-ass,' fl. 5b⁵.

As we shall see presently, all these words are technical names of certain throws of dice and of corresponding groups of verses. The meanings above given are merely the original meanings of the words, and in some cases they are doubtful: probably it matters little what the meanings were, or why the throws were so called. The main point is, that the words are names of certain throws of dice. *Duṇḍubhī* is the only one among them which I have found noted in Sanskrit dictionaries in that sense: in the *Petersburg Dictionary* it is given as "the name of certain throws in games with dice."⁵

The subject of the manuscript I believe to be divination or fortune-telling by means of dice. The work is a small treatise or handbook for instruction, or for the guidance of adepts, in the art of prognostication. This art is to be exercised, as the introduction of the treatise shows, with the help of dice (*prāsāḥa*), of which there are three, respectively named, or probably marked, with the figures of a pitcher (*kumbhaka*), a discus or wheel (*arīṇ*), and an elephant (*mātaṅga*). They are thrown on a diagram or board (*vṛiti*), divided into fields, which are marked with one of the four numeral figures, 1, 2, 3, 4. There must have been twelve fields, of which three were marked with the figure 4, three with 3, three with 2, and three with 1. So far as I can make out, the order in which these fields were arranged was immaterial. Every

⁵ *Pāñchī* or *pañchikā* is at present used as the name of a game played with five dice, and *chuñchikūṇ* is given in the Sanskrit dictionaries as a game of hazard played with seeds of tamarind, instead of dice.

properly made throw of the three dice would, of course, indicate a group of three fields or of the corresponding inscribed figures. Of such groups there would necessarily be three different classes, according as the same number occurred in the group thrice or twice or once; thus the group might be 444, or 443, or 432. It follows that there would be 20 possible groups, and that every throw of the dice would indicate one of these 20 groups. Each of these 20 groups or throws is designated by a special name; and the list given below is that of these names.

Further, within each group the numeral figures constituting it may be arranged in different ways; *e. g.*, the group 443 admits of the three variations, 443, 344, 434. Again the group 432 admits of six variations, *viz.*, 432, 423, 342, 243, 234, 324. In fact, every group, containing the same figure twice, admits of three, and every group containing the same figure only once, admits of six variations; while a group, containing the same figure thrice, admits only of one arrangement. Now, there are four possible groups of the latter kind (444, 333, 222, 111); but there are twelve possible groups containing the same figure twice, and four possible groups, containing the same figure only once. It follows that the number of possible arrangements or variations of the 20 groups is 64, (*i. e.*, $4 \times 1 + 12 \times 3 + 4 \times 6$, or $4 + 36 + 24$).

All this is shown in the First Table below. The groups are arranged in the order in which they would naturally suggest themselves. In the Second Table I have given them in the order in which they follow one another in the manuscript; and this order is also shown in the First Table, in the second column, enclosed in brackets. The bracketed numbers in the fourth column give the summations of the figures which compose the several groups.

I.—Table of Groups and Variations.

Classes of Groups.	Serial Number of Groups.	Names of Groups.	Figures of Groups.	No. of Variations.	Total No. of Groups.	Total No. of Variations.
With the same figure thrice.	I.	(I.) Chanṭayāṇṭa (?).....	444 (12)	1	4	4
	II.	(II.) Navikki	333 (9)	1		
	III.	(III.) Paṭṭabandha	222 (6)	1		
	IV.	(IV.) Kālaviddhi	111 (3)	1		
With the same figure twice.	V.	(V.) Śāpaṭa	443 (11)	3	12	36
	VI.	(XII.) Vṛisha	442 (10)	3		
	VII.	(VIII.) Kūṭa	441 (9)	3		
	VIII.	(VI.) Māli	334 (10)	3		
	IX.	(XIV.) Viṭi	332 (8)	3		
	X.	(XVII.) Kāna.....	331 (7)	3		
	XI.	(XIII.) Prēshyā	224 (8)	3		
	XII.	(XVI.) Sajā	223 (7)	3		
	XIII.	(XIX.) Pāñchi	221 (5)	3		
	XIV.	(XV.) Kārṇa	114 (6)	3		
	XV.	(XVIII.) Chuñchuna	113 (5)	3		
	XVI.	(XX.) Kharī	112 (4)	3		
With the same figure once.	XVII.	(VII.) Vahula.....	432 (9)	6	4	24
	XVIII.	(IX.) Bhadrā	421 (7)	6		
	XIX.	(X.) Śakti	341 (8)	6		
	XX.	(XI.) Dundubhi.....	321 (6)	6		
Total.....					20	64

II.—Table of Order of Groups in MS.

I. 444 12	V. 443 11	VIII. 441 9	XII. 442 10
II. 333 9	VI. 334 10	IX. 421 7	XIII. 224 8
III. 222 6	VII. 432 9	X. 341 8	XIV. 332 8
IV. 111 3	<u>30</u>	XI. 321 6	XV. 114 6
<u>30</u>		<u>30</u>	XVI. 223 7
			XVII. 331 7
			XVIII. 113 5
			XIX. 221 5
			XX. 112 4
			<u>60</u>

As already remarked, each (properly made) throw of the dice would indicate three fields, or one group of three figures; but in most cases, it would not show what particular variation of the group was to be understood by the throw. Some mark would be needed to show in what order the figures indicated by any particular throw should be read. It is for this reason that the three dice are marked by the emblems of a pitcher, discus and elephant, and that the order of these three emblems is laid down in the introduction. The direction intended to be given in the introduction (as I take it) is that the dice should be thrown on the fields of the diagram, and then the throw read off in the order of the marks of the dice; that is, the figure indicated by the pitcher-die is to be placed first, that of the discus-die is to come second, and that of the elephant-die is to come last. With the aid of this rule, there would be no doubt as to which group and variation any particular throw indicated.

The fortune-teller would first make his diagram or lay his board; he would then make a throw of his dice; from the throw he would know the group and its name, and from the order of the dice he would know the particular variety of the group. For every variety he would know a verse; and the verses would suggest to him what he should prognosticate in any given case. I remember, some years ago, when I was spending my summer vacation in Darjeeling, a travelling Kashmiri (or Afghan) came to the hotel in which I was staying, and told the fortune of any one who wished to consult him by a somewhat similar procedure. I then took no particular notice of him, but I remember that he used a diagram and variously marked oblong dice, by the help of which he made his prognostications. Perhaps some who read this may be able to supplement my information, and tell us whether the same or similar practices in divination as those indicated in the Bower Manuscript are still observed anywhere in India or its northern borders.

One point more may be noticed. The order of the groups in the manuscript is shown in Table II. It may be asked why the groups should be arranged in that order in preference to the more obvious logical order shown in Table I. Perhaps there may be no better reason for it than accident; but the Table shows a curious fact which may possibly account for it. The first four groups may be regarded as the *key-groups*; and the total of the sums of the figures composing them gives a key-total of 30. Now, if the figures of the remaining groups are severally summed up, and the sums arranged in an order decreasing by 1, it is found that the key-total 30 is repeated four times: and in this order the manuscript arranges the groups. The arrangement, however, is not quite perfect: group X. ought to precede group IX., and groups XVI. and XVII. ought to precede group XV. This circumstance, though it may be due to an error of the scribe, prevents the explanation from having more than the character of a doubtful conjecture.

The Nāgarī transcript gives the text as it stands in the manuscript, broken letters being

printed in full. *Aksharas* which are wholly wanting, are indicated by dots, which are in numbers equal to the missing *aksharas*. *Aksharas* which are now wanting, but which were still extant when I first made my transcript, are enclosed within straight brackets.

In the Roman transliteration, broken *aksharas* of the MS. text are indicated by round brackets, and entirely missing portions, by dots, or longs and shorts. Any restoration of a missing text is enclosed within straight brackets.

In the translation, conjectural portions or explanatory additions are indicated by round brackets.

I. TEXT.

Transcript.

First Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 ॐ नमो नन्दिरुद्रेधराय—नमो आचार्येभ्यः नमो ईश्वराय—नमो माणिभद्राय [नमस्सर्व्वेभ्यः] .
- 2 नमः सर्व्वदेवेभ्यः शिवाय नमः षष्ठीये नमः प्रजापतये नमः रुद्राय नमः नमो वैश्रवणाय नमो मरुतानां नमः प्रास-
- 3 का पतन्तु इमस्त्यार्यस्य कारणा हिलि २ कुम्भकारिमातङ्ग-युक्ता पतन्तु यत्सत्यं सर्व्वसिद्धानां यत्सत्यं सर्व्ववासीनां
तेन सत्येन सत्यसमयेन नष्टं विनष्टं
- 4 ॐ ॐ लालालालं जयाजयं शिवानुवर्षय स्वा—सत्यनारायणे चैव देवते ऋषीषु चैव सत्यं मन्त्रं वृत्तिस्तस्य
समक्षा पतन्तु स्वाहा सत्यं चैव तु द्रष्टव्यं नि-
- 5 मन्त्रौषधीनां च विमित्तवलममन्तरम् सुषतायां देवतं विष्णुनविकायां षण्डयाण्ड ॥ ४४४
नमः पुरुषसिद्धस्य प्रसन्नस्ते जनार्दनः
- 6 निहता शत्रवस्सर्व्वे यद्विप्ससेकम् नविकी ३३३ न ते शोको न वायासो नीचोच्चं न च ते भयः

Second Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 प्राप्ससि पहबन्धः ॥ २२२ सर्व्वकामसमुद्दे पि सुखं अनिरुपद्रवं उत्पन्ने तत्तं चैव
देवं शमय ते भयम् कालवद्विः ॥ १११ परिहीयते ते बुद्धिः
- 2 आरम्भश्चिन्तितो यस्ते निष्पल स भविष्यति ॥ शापटः ४४३ व्याधिभिर्मोक्षयसे क्षिप्रं सुखं वा
प्राप्स्यसे तथा नात्युच्चं नातिनीचं च फलमासाद्यिष्यसि ॥ द्वितीयशापटः ॥
- 3 ३४ आयासो दृश्यते घोरो येभ्यश्च तव विग्रहः निष्फलं दृश्यते कार्यं पुच्छसे यस्य कारणा—। तृतीयशापटः ॥
३४४ समागमं चिन्तयसे कल्याणि न च युज्यते
- 4 न ते शरीरसन्तापो भोगां चैवोपलप्स्यसि † ३४३ सर्व्वार्थसिद्धिसंपदकामभोगः समान्वितः अचिरैव कालेन भवि-
ष्यति स निर्यात् द्वितीया माली—३३४ अयं सपुण्यो लभसे
- 5 ह्यानन्दः प्रीतिवर्द्धनः अत्रात्सुमहानर्था त्वरितो वै न लप्स्यसि—॥ ४३३ अयं त्वया महानर्थाश्चिन्तितो र्यस्ततोत्तमः
प्रवासं क्षेमगमनं वान्धवैश्च समागमः बहुलः ३२४
- 6 कीर्धमायुर्महानर्थः प्राप्ससे नयमुत्तमं धनधान्यं करिञ्चं च भोगानवि च प्राप्ससि द्वितीयो बहुलः ४३२ दृश्यते आगम
यत्र त्वया सुपरिनिश्चितः आत्मानं चैवार्थश्च ततो गृह्यागमिष्यसि
- 7 तृतीयो बहुलः २४३ बहुलं दृश्यते कार्यं बहुपुत्रत्वतां च ते प्रतीक्ष्युभमात्मानं सर्व्वमेतदवाप्स्यसि—चतुर्थो बहुलः ४२३
बहुलो विजयस्सुभ्यं तुष्टा मित्रगणाश्च ते स्पृहे सति परस्तभ्य

Second Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 न परा स्पृहयिष्यसि—पञ्चमो बहुलः ३४२ स्नेहागमस्य ते चिन्ता संसिद्धेश्च परा तव अन्योन्याभिहता प्रीति—किमा-
गमिष्यति गम्यता कूटः ४१४ राजतो विग्रहो स्तीति धर्मास्याति परिक्षय
- 2 लब्धं चैव फलं तस्मा धर्ममेव चरिष्यसि द्वितीयो कूटः १४४ चलाचलमिदं स्थानं न सुखं प्रीतिवर्द्धनं विग्रमोक्षसि
देवे तिगृहीतो पि न संशयः तृतीयः कूटः ४४१ अस्ति क्षेमं अयं नास्ति
- 3 विजयो प्यत्र दृश्यते भोक्ष्यसे कामचांगाश्च कुतश्चिन्नास्ति ते भयम् भद्रा—४२१ परिक्षीणा ह्यनर्थास्ते मुक्तस्ते सर्व्व-
किन्त्विषा विजेष्यसि ऋषू सर्व्वौ लभस्ते समुपस्थितः

- 4 द्वितीया भद्रा—२१४ मनसा चिन्तादिपक्षस्य तु कारणा किञ्चित्कालमुदीक्षस्व ततो हस्तमुपैष्यति—द्वितीया भद्रा—॥ १४२
- 5 . ८ . स्यसि कन्यां वै

Third Leaf : Obverse.

- 1 . च चतुनयिष्यसि प्रीतिसौभाग्यसंयुक्तं धनं शस्यन्ति देवताः चतुर्थी भद्रा २४१ वृत्तिश्च नाक्षयस्सर्वो देवतेभ्यो न ते भयम् यथा कुर्वसि कुर्वणा
- 2 प्राप्स्यसि—४१२ ॥ शक्ती ३४१ परिग्रहं चिन्तयसे तच्च शीघ्रमवाप्स्यसि—अर्थकामप्रदातारं वान्धवं प्रीतिदर्शनं द्वितीया शक्ती—॥ १३४
- 3 . . गम चिन्तयसे तच्च शीघ्रं समेप्यसि—अम्मीनैः कुतालेखा नैष्या न भविष्यति द्वितीया शक्ती ४१३ उपस्थित विशिष्टस्ते तथा लाभश्च
- 4 कृष्यते कुटुम्बे चतुल्लङ्घिर्भविष्यति न संशया—चतुर्थी शक्ती ३१४ एकच्छलां महीं कृत्स्नां राजा निहतकण्डकः आक्रम्य भोक्ष्यसे शत्रुं गणैस्समुदितस्सदा ॥
- 5 पञ्चमी शक्ति—१४३ न चेच्छसि सुमित्रं त्वं सुमित्रे शम्यसे सदा—कृताकृताश्च ते मित्रा शत्रुत्वं यास्यकारणं ॥
- 6 षष्ठी शक्ति ४३१ समागमं चिन्तयसे सर्वथा स समेप्यसि काले प्राप्स्यसे सो र्थः अनिवर्त्तं तथैव च दुन्दुभी ३२१ यत्ते नष्टं विनष्टं वा चौरैरपहृतं च यत्
- 7 परहस्तगतं वापि न चिरात्तदवाप्स्यसि—द्वितीया दुन्दुभी २१३ विमुक्तस्त्वं सहायेस्तु सुमित्रे सह वृत्तंसे लब्धव्याश्च प्रिया ह्यर्था विरुद्धं देवतै स्पृहा ॥

Third Leaf : Reverse.

- 1 . . य दुन्दुभी १३२ परितोषः शरीरस्य दृश्यते तव साम्प्रतम् देवतानां च पूजायाः निवृत्तिरूपलभ्यते—चतुर्थी दुन्दुभी २३१ अस्ति ते कलहं धीरं
- 2 शत्रुभिस्सह दृश्यते न तत्र लप्स्यसे क्लेशं प्रत्यर्थि च विजेष्यसि—पञ्चमी दुन्दुभी—॥ ३१२ उत्तमो दृश्यते लम्भः पुत्रजन्म तथैव च—ईप्सितांश्चैव कामां
- 3 प्राप्स्यसे नात्र संशयः षष्ठी दुन्दुभी १२३ परिभ्रमति ब्रुद्धिस्ते स्थानं चैव चलाचलं मासमात्रमुदीक्षस्व ततः सुखमवाप्स्यसि—
- 4 प्रथमो वृषः ४४२ यत्तवास्ति गृहे किञ्चित् गावो धान्यं धनं तस्या विसृज्यस्त्वं द्विजातिभ्यः ब्रुद्धिस्ते समुपस्थिता—
- 5 षः २४४ समागमं चिन्तयसे दुरस्थ चैव ते प्रियः समृद्धं सर्वकामेषु न चिरेण समेप्यति द्वितीयो वृषः
- 6 न्धनं प्राप्स्यसे धीरं पुनः स्थानं च प्राप्स्यसि भविष्यति फलं चैव निर्द्वितीया भविष्यति—प्रथमा प्रेष्या—

Fourth Leaf : Obverse.

- 1 सवा वा विद्यां वा यदि आचसे गृहैव निरतस्तिष्ठ सर्व्वे हि तव निष्फलं द्वितीया प्रेष्या—॥ २४२ यस्त्वया चिन्तितो ह्यर्थः
- 2 त हि न पूरयति तत्कर्मै यस्य पृच्छसि करणे—तृतीया प्रेष्या—२४२ य त्वया चिन्तिता काचा तदर्थस्य तु कारणा विषयत्यर्थलम्भस्ते
- 3 पात्र संशयः प्रथमा विदी—३३२ सातत्वं त्व निरायासः कर्मण्यश्चापि जीविते न त्वं प्राप्स्यसे दुर्कृतं प्रत्यर्थिभिश्च विजेष्यसि—द्वितीया विदी—
- 4 ३२३ न शुड्यसे फलार्थेन निर्व्वेदेन च शुड्यसे अन्यत्र स्वरितो गच्छ लप्स्यसे सुखमुत्तमम्—
- 5 तृतीया विदी २३३ दृश्यते ते अभिप्रायो द्विपक्षं ८ कारणा समेप्यति ते तत्त्वेन मरुतस्य वचो यथा—प्रथमकर्णः ११४ संपूज्य
- 6 सर्व्वकर्माणि सौभाग्य निरुपव्रवं राजलम्भस्तु लप्स्यसे न चिरादिह भविष्यति द्वितीयः कर्णः १४१ वैश्वर्येण परिभ्रष्टा समप्रश्नापि . सि च

Fifth Leaf : Obverse.

- 1 ८ द्वितीयः कर्णः ४१. अज्ज्ञान गमनं चिन्ता दुक्खेन च समागमः सावशेषेण कार्त्तव्यं

- 2 न संशयः प्रथमा सजा—३२२ विज्ञेयसि ऋषूः सर्व्वी प्रत्यार्थी बलवांश्च ते लप्स्यसे प्रथमं स्थानं पञ्चाच्छो-
कमवाप्स्यसि—
- 3 द्वितीया सजा—२३२ न च जानीषे कार्याणि पञ्चात्तपेन युज्यसे भविष्यति च ते लाभः सुमुखस्तव देवता—द्वितीया
सजा—
- 4 २२३ शरीरे तव सन्वेह समतीतो दुरासदः देवतानां प्रसादेन प्राशुण्यं तव केवलम् प्रथमः काण ३३१ प्राशुण्ये
शरीरस्य
- 5 लाभार्थश्च प्राप्तये उपस्थितं च ते कल्याणं मरुतस्य वचो यथा — द्वितीयः काणः तन्त्र ३१३ आरोग्यं पुलां च
प्रेक्ष्यसे नात्र संशयः लप्स्यसे सर्व्वथा भद्रं
- 6 भोगांश्च विपुलां तथा तृतीयः कणतन्त्रः १३३ मिथ्या वदसि यत्किञ्चि मित्रं द्विषसि नित्यदा देवतानां प्रसादाद्वा
तिष्ठत श्रेयो भविष्यति —

Fifth Leaf; Reverse.

- 1 प्रथमश्चक्षुणः ३११ भोगानां विप्रयोगस्ते न चिरेणैव दृश्यते अन्यं संप्राप्त्यसे स्थानं मा विषादं करिष्यसि—द्विती-
यश्चक्षुणः १३१ अर्थसिद्धिद्वयं चैव
- 2 कुलस्थानं तथैव च प्राप्त्यसे सर्व्वकामांश्च मरुतस्य वचो यथा—तृतीयश्चक्षुणः ११३ विप्रमुक्तस्त्वमर्थेभ्यो मित्रैश्च
सुहृदेव च उत्थानं चिन्तयानस्य
- 3 उद्विग्न इव दृश्यते—प्रथमा पञ्ची २२१ चलाच . . . स्थानं दृश्यते समाकुलं न च नारभसे कार्यं दुक्वेन च
विमुच्यसे—द्वितीया पञ्ची—१२२
- 4 दिशः सर्वा समात्क्रान्ता कालधर्मं कुरुष्वती सुखं ते न कार्यन्ते ते न तेषु कदाचनः [द्वितीया पञ्ची]⁶—२१२ पशु-
बन्धाश्च यज्ञां वै विविधान्यक्षसे तथा
- 5 . . . च सद्गुह्यानि हास्यसे नात्र संशयः तृतीयः पञ्ची २१२ प्रथमा खरी ११२ अतिक्रान्ता परिक्षेक्षा दुक्वं चैव
समानतः शूराशुभादिप्रभुक्तो सि लाभस्ते स—
- 6 मुपस्थित— ॥

II. Transliteration.

First Leaf; Reverse.

- 1 Om Namô Nandi-rudr-êśvarāya — namô Āchāryēbhyaḥ namô Īśvarāya — namô
Māpi(bhad)ra(āya) [namas=sarvva-Yakshēbhyaḥ]⁶
- 2 namaḥ sarvva-Dēvēbhyaḥ Śivāya namaḥ Shashthīyē namaḥ Prajāpatayē
namaḥ Rudrāya namaḥ namô Vaiśravaṇāya namô Marutānām namaḥ
prāsa-
- 3 kâ patantu imasy-ârthasya kâraṇâ hili 2 kumbhak-âri-mâtāṅga-yuktâ patantu
yat=satyaṁ sarvva-Siddhānām yat=satyaṁ Sarvva-vâdīnām tēna satyēna
satya-samayēna nashṭam vinashṭam
- 4 [ksb]ê(m)-âk[sh]ēmām lâbh-âlâbham jay-âjayam Siv-ânudarsāya svâ⁷ — Satya-
nârāyaṇē ch=aiva dēvatē Rishishu ch=aiva satyaṁ mantram vriti=
satyaṁ samakshâ patantu svâhâ satyaṁ ch=aiva tu drashṭavyam ni-
- 5 mantr-anushadhnām cha nimitta-valam=am=antaram⁸ mṛisha-
tāyām dēvataṁ Vishṇu navikāyām chaṇṭayānta ॥ ८ ॥ 444 Namaḥ 1
purusha-siṅghasya prasannas=tē Janârddanaḥ [1]
- 6 nihatâ śattravas=sarvvē yadi peasē kaṁn⁹ [11] Navikkī 333 Na tē sókô 2
na vāyâsô nich-ôchcham na cha tē bhayaḥ [1]

⁶ The bracketed portion is crossed out in the original.

⁸ Read valam-antarām; am is superfluous.

⁷ Read svâhâ.

⁹ Reading of the fourth pâda is corrupt.

Second Leaf: Obverse

- 1 (prā)psasi [u] Patta-bandhaḥ || 222 Sarva-kāma-
sampriddhē pi sukhaṁ janir=upadravaṁ [i] utpannē tataṁ ch=aiva dēvaṁ 3
śamaya tē bhayaṁ¹⁰ [it] Kāla-viddhiḥ || 111 Parihiyatē tē buddhiḥ 4
- 2 h [i] ārambhaś=chintitō yas=tē nishpala¹¹ sa bhaviṣyati [ii]
Śāpataḥ 443 Vyādhibhir=m=śokshyasē kshipraṁ sukhaṁ vā prāpsyasē 5
tathā [i] n=āty-uchchaṁ n=āti-nichaṁ cha phalam=āśādayishyasi — ||
Dvitiya-śāpaṭa ||
- 3 [4](34) Āyāsō dṛiśyatē ghōrō yēbhyaś=cha tava vighrahaḥ [i] nishphalaṁ 6
dṛiśyatē kāryaṁ prichchhasē yasya kāraṇā — || Tritiya-śāpaṭaḥ || 344
Samāgamam chintayasē kalyāṇi¹² na cha yuchyatē [i] 7
- 4 na tē śārīra-santāpō bhōgām ch=aiv=ōpalapsyasi † ||¹³ 343 Sarva-ārtha-
siddhi-sāmpada-kāma-bhōgaḥ sam-ānvitaḥ¹⁴ [i] achirēṇ=aiva kālēna bha- 8
viṣyati sa nityāt¹⁵ [i] Dvitiyā māli — || 334 Ayaṁ sa-puṇyō labhasē 9
- 5 hy=ānandaḥ prīti-varddhanaḥ [i] atvarāt=su-mahān=arthā¹⁶ tvaritō vai na 10
lasyasi — ||¹⁷ 433 Ayaṁ tvayā mahān=arthas=chintitō rthas=tat=ōt-
tamaḥ [i] pravāsaṁ kshēma-gamanaṁ vāndhavaś=cha samāgamaḥ [ii]
Vahulaḥ 324
- 6 Dīrggham=āyur=m=mahān=arthah prāpsasē n=ayam¹⁸=uttama [i] dhana-dhānyam 11
karittraṁ cha bhōgān=avi cha prāpsasi¹⁹ [ii] Dvitiyō vahulaḥ 432
Dṛiśyatē āgam[ō] yatra tvayā su-pariniśchitaḥ [i] ātmānam ch=aiv=ā 12
rthas=cha²⁰ tatō gṛīhy=āgamishyasi [ii]
- 7 Tritiyō vahulaḥ 243 Vahulaṁ dṛiśyatē kāryaṁ vahu-puttratvatām cha tē [i] 13
pratiksha śubham=ātmā(n)aṁ sarvam=ētaḥ=avāpsyasi²¹ — [ii] Chaturthō
vahulaḥ 423 Vahulō vijayas=tubhyaṁ tushtā mittra-gaṇās=cha tē [i] 14
sprihē sati paras=t[u]bhya[m]

Second Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 na parā sprīhayishyasi — [ii] Pañchamō vahulaḥ 342 Snēh-āgamasya tē chintā
samsiddhēs=cha parā tava [i] anyōny-ābhihatā prīti — kim=āgamishyasi 15
gamyatā²² [ii] Kūṭaḥ 414 Rājātō vighrō st=iti dharmmasya²³=āti- 16
parikshaya[i]
- 2 labdham ch=aiva phalaṁ tasmā dharmmam=ēva charishyasi — [ii] Dvitiyō 17
kūṭaḥ 144 Chal-āchalam=idam sthānam na sukhaṁ prīti-varddhanaṁ
[i] vipramōkshasi dēvē tigrihītō pi na saṁśayaḥ [ii] Tritiyaḥ kūṭaḥ 18
441 Asti kshēmaṁ bhayaṁ nāsti
- 3 vijayō py=attra dṛiśyatē [i] bhōkshyasē kāma-chāṁgās=cha kutaś=chin=n=āsti
tē bhayaṁ [ii] Bhadrā — 421 Parikshṇā hy=anarthas=tē muktas=²⁴tē 19
sarva-kilviṣhā [i] vijēshyasi pipūm sarvām labhas=tē samupasthitaḥ [ii]
- 4 Dvitiyā bhadra — 214 Manasā chintitā chint=ādipadasya tu kāraṇā [i] kiñ- 20
chit=kālam=udikshasva tatō hastam=upaishyati — [ii] Tritiyā bhadra —
|| 142
- 5 [par]i[prāp]syasi kānyām vai

¹⁰ In the third pāda one syllable is wanting. Perhaps read *satataḥ*.¹² Read *kalyāṇi*.¹³ Here insert *Māli*.¹⁵ The fourth pāda is short by one syllable; read *nityataḥ*.¹⁷ Here insert *tritiyā māli*.¹⁸ Read *n=āyam*.²⁰ The third pāda is short by one syllable. Read *ārthān=cha*.²¹ The fourth pāda in the original is rather indistinct, through corrections having been made in it by the original scribe.²² The fourth pāda has one syllable in excess.¹¹ Read *nishphalaḥ*.¹⁴ Probably read *samānvitaḥ*.¹⁶ Read *arthō*.¹⁹ Read *prāpsyasi*.²³ Read *dharmmasya*.²⁴ Read *muktas*.

Third Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 [mi]ttra[m] ch=anunayishyasi²⁵ [i] priti-saubhāgya-saṃyuktaṃ dhanam dasyanti
dēvatāḥ [u] Chaturthā bhadra 241 Vṛttis=cha nā²⁶ kshayas=sarvvō 22
dēvatēbhyō na tē bhayam [i] yathā kurvāsi kurvāṇ(ā)
- 2 [a]vāpsyasi — [u] 412 || Śakti 341 Parigrahaṃ chintayasē tach=cha 23
śighram=avāpsyasi — [i] artha-kāma-pradatāraṃ vāndhavaṃ priti-darśa-
nam [u] Dvitiyā śakti — || 134
- 3 [Samā](ga)ma[m] chintayasē tach=cha śighram samēshyati[i] aśmīnai . kṛitā 24
lēkhā n=ēshyā na bhavishyati²⁷ [u] Tṛtīyā śakti 413 Upasthita 25
viśiṣṭas=tē tathā lābhas=cha
- 4 dṛiṣyatē [i] kuṣṭmivē ch=ātula-vṛddhir=bhavishyati na saṃśayā²⁸ [u]
Chaturthā śakti 314 Eka-ch-ohhatrām mahīm kṛtsnām rājā nihata- 26
kaṇṭakaḥ [i] ākrāmya bhōkshyasē śatruṃ gaṇais=samuditas=sadā — ||
- 5 Pañchamī śakti — 143 Na ch=ēchchasi su-mittraṃ tvaṃ²⁹ su-mittre 27
rāmyasē sadā [i] — kṛit-ākṛitās=cha tē mittrā śatrutvaṃ yāty=akāraṇam — ||
- 6 Shashthī śakti 431 Samāgamaṃ chintayasē sarvvamthā³⁰ sa samēshyasi³¹ [i] 28
kālē³² prāpsyasē sō rthaḥ anirvvedam tath=aiva cha [u] Dundubhī
321 Yat=tē nashṭam vinashṭam vā chōrair=apahṛitam cha yat [i] 29
- 7 (para-ha)sta-gataṃ v=āpi na chirāt=tad=avāpsyasi — [u] Dvitiyā dundubhī
213 Vimuktas=tvam saḥyēs³³=tu su-mittrai saha varṭtasē [i] lab- 30
dhavyās=cha priyā hy=arthā viruddham dēvatai sprihā ||

Third Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 [Tṛtī]y[ā] (dundubhī) 132 Paritōshaḥ śarīrasya dṛiṣyatē tava sāmpratam [i] 31
dēvatānām cha pūjāyāḥ nirvittir=upalabhyatē—[u] Chaturthī dundubhī —
231 Asti tē kalahaṃ ghōraṃ
- 2 śatrubhis=saha dṛiṣyatē [i] na tattra lapsyasē klēśam pratyarthim cha
vijēshyasi — [u] Pañchamī dundubhī—|| 312 Uttamō dṛiṣyatē lambhaḥ 32
puttra-janmaṃ tath=aiva cha — [i] īpsitām=s=ch=aiva kāmam 33
- 3 prāpsyasē n=āttra saṃśayaḥ [u] Shashthī dundubhī 123 Paribhramati
buddhis=tē sthānam ch=aiva chal-āchalam [i] māsa-māttram=udīkshasva 34
tataḥ sukham=avāpsyasi — [u]
- 4 Prathamō vṛishaḥ 442 Yat=tav=āsti grihē kiñ-chi gāvō dhānyam dhanam 35
tathā [i] visriḃyas=tvam dvijātibhyaḥ vṛddhis=tē samupasthitā — [i]
- 5 [Dvitiyō vṛi]shaḥ 244 Samāgamaṃ chintayasē durastha ch=aiva tē 36
priyaḥ [i] sampriddham sarvva-kāmēshu na chirēṇa samēshyati [u]
Tṛtīyō vṛishaḥ
- 6 [424 V]andhanam prāpsyasē ghōraṃ puna sthānam cha prāpsyasi [i] 37
bhavishyati phalam ch=aiva nirvṛitis=cha bhavishyati — [u] Prathamā
prēshyā —

Fourth Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 [422] savā vā vidyām vā yadi yāchasē [i] grih=aiva niratas=tishṭha 38
sarvvaṃ hi tava nishphalam [u] Dvitiyā prēshyā — || 242 Yas=tvayā 39
chintitō hy=arthah

²⁵ Read *ch-anunayishyasi*, i.e., *cha anunayishyasi*.²⁷ The fourth pāda is short by one syllable.²⁸ The words *na saṃśayā* were originally omitted, and have been inserted interlinearly.²⁹ Perhaps: *su-mitratvam*. The first anusvāra is uncertain.³¹ Read *samēshyati*; cf. verse 24.³² The third pāda is short by one syllable. Read *kālēna*, m. c.²⁶ Read *vṛittis=cha*, perhaps also *na*.³⁰ Read *sarvvathā*.³³ Read *sahyās*.

- 2 tā hi [I] na pūrayati tat=karmmaṃ yasya prichchhasi karanā³⁴— [II] 40
 Tṛitīyā prēshyā — 224 Ya³⁵ tvaṃ chintitā vāchā tad-arthasya tu
 kāraṇā [I] viśhyati=artha-lambhas=tē
- 3 . . . n=ātra saṃśayaḥ [II] Prathamā vitī — 332 Sātātvaṃ³⁶ tva[m] ni(r)āyasaḥ 41
 karmmaṇyaś=ch=āpi³⁷ jivitē [I] na tvaṃ prāpsyasē dukkhaṃ praty-
 arthibhiś=cha vijēshyasi³⁸ — [II] Dvitiyā vitī —
- 4 323 Na yujyasē phal-ārthēna nirvvedēna cha yujyasē [I] anyattra tvaritō 42
 gachchha lapsyasē sukhaṃ=uttamam — [II]
- 5 Tṛitīyā vitī 233 Dṛiśyatē tē abhiprāyō dvipada[s](ya) [t](u) kāraṇā [I] 48
 samēshyati tē tatvā³⁹ marutasya vachō yathā — [II] Prathama-karṇaḥ
 114 Sāmpūjya 44
- 6 sarvva-karmāṇi saubhāgya-nirupadravaṃ [I] rāja-lambhas=tu lapsyasē na 45
 chirād=iha bhaviśhyati⁴⁰ [II] Dvitiyaḥ karṇaḥ 141 Aisvaryēṇa pari-
 bhrashtā samagraś=ch=āpi — si cha⁴¹ [I]

Fifth Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 ch sh . [II] [D]v[i](t)yaḥ⁴² karṇaḥ 41[1] 46
 Adhvān[am] gamanaṃ chintā dukkhēna cha samāgamaḥ [I] s-āvasēshēṇa
 karyēṇa
- 2⁴³ na saṃśayaḥ [II] Prathamā saṃ—322 Vijēshyasi pīṇaṃ sarvvaṃ 47
 pratyarthī valavām=s=cha tē [I] lapsyasē prathamam sthānam paśchāch=
 chhōkam=avāpsyasi— [II]
- 3 Dvitiyā saṃ 232 Na cha jānīshē kāryāṇi paśchāttapēna yujyasē [I] 48
 bhaviśhyati cha tē lābha⁴⁴ su-mukhas=tava dēvatā— [II] Dvitiyā⁴⁵ saṃ
- 4 223 Śarīrē tava sandēha samatītō dur-āsadaḥ [I] dēvatānām prasādēna 49
 prāguṇyam tava kēvalam [II] Prathamaḥ kāṇa 331 Prāguṇan=tē 50
 śarīrasya
- 5 lābhaś=ch=ārthaś=cha prāptayē [I] upasthitam cha tē kalyāṇam (maruta)sya 51
 vachō yathā — [II] Dvitiyaḥ kāṇa tantra 313 Ārōgyam pul-ām-
 bham cha⁴⁶ prēkshyasē n=ātra saṃśayaḥ [I] lapsyasē sarvvathā
 bhadram
- 6 bhōgām=s=cha vipulām tathā [I] Tṛitīyaḥ kāṇa-tantraḥ 133 Mishyā vadasi 52
 yat=kiñ-chi mittram dvishasi nityadā [I] dēvatānām prasādād=vā
 tishhata śrēyō bhaviśhyati⁴⁷ — [II]

Fifth Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 Prathamaś=chuñchunaḥ 311 Bhōgānām viprayōgas=tē na chireṇ=aiva dṛiśyatē [I] 53
 anyam saṃprāpsyasē sthānam mā vishādām karishyasi — [II] Dvitiyaś=
 chuñchunaḥ 131 Arthaśiddhi[r]=d=dvaya[m] ch=(ai)va 54
- 2 kula-sthānam tath=aiva cha [I] prāpsyasē sarvva-kāmām=s=cha marutasya 55
 vachō yathā— [II] Tṛitīyaś⁴⁸=chuñchunaḥ 113 Vipramuktas=tvam=arthē-
 bhyō mittrais=cha suhṛid=ēva cha [I] utthānam chintayānasya

³⁴ Read *kāraṇā*, or perhaps *kāraṇā*.

³⁵ Read *yā*.

³⁶ Perhaps read *sātātvaṃ* or *satātvaṃ*.

³⁷ *Āpi* is added interlinearly.

³⁸ The scanning is here irregular; the third pāda is too short and the fourth pāda is too long by one syllable. Moreover, the sense of the fourth pāda requires *pratyartham cha*; cf. verse 32.

³⁹ Read *tattvā*; the reading of *ti t* is not quite clear.

⁴⁰ The fourth pāda has one syllable in excess.

⁴¹ The last two syllables (*si cha*) are added below the line.

⁴² Read *Tṛitīyaḥ*.

⁴³ *Pratyēshyasi* may be supplied.

⁴⁴ The syllable *bha* is inserted below the line.

⁴⁵ Read *tritiyā*.

⁴⁶ The first pāda is short by one syllable; read *vipulā*; or perhaps *puna lābham*.

⁴⁷ The fourth pāda has one syllable in excess. Read *tishhita*.

⁴⁸ Originally written *tritiyāś*, afterwards corrected to *tritiyāś*.

- 3 udvigna iva dṛiśyatê—[11] Prathamâ pāñchî—221 Chal=âcha[lam=i]dam 56
sthānam dṛiśyatê samākulam⁴⁹ [1] na cha n=ārambhāsê kâryam
dukkhēna cha vimuchyasê—[11] Dvitiyâ pāñchî—122
- 4 Disaḥ sarvā samât=krāntā⁵⁰ kâla-dharmma⁵¹ kurushva ti [1] sukham te na 57
kâryam⁵²=tê tê na tēshu kadâ-chana: [11] Tṛitīyâ pāñchî⁵³ 212 Paśu-
vandhâś⁵⁴=cha yajñam vai vividhân=yakshasê tathâ [1] 58
- 5 [arghyân]i cha samṛiddhâni dâsyasê n=āttra samśayah [11] Tṛitīyaḥ pāñchî
212 [11] Prathamâ kharî 112 Atikrāntâ pariklêśâ dukkham ch=aiva 59
samānataḥ [1] śubh-âśubhâd=vipramuktô si⁵⁵ lâbhas=tê sa-
- 6 mupasthita — 11

TRANSLATION.

First Leaf: Reverse.

Om! Salutation to Nandirudrêśvara! Salutation to the Āchāryas! Salutation to Īśvara! Salutation to Māṇibhadra! Salutation to all Yakshas! Salutation to all Dêvas. To Siva salutation! To Shashthî salutation! To Prajâpati salutation! To Rudra salutation! Salutation to Vaiśrâṇa! Salutation to the Marutas! Salutation!

Let the dice fall for the purpose of the present object (i. e., of soothsaying)! Hili! Hili! Let them fall as marked by the pitcher, discus and elephant!

By the truth of all the Siddhas, by the truth of all Schools, by their truth and true consensus let Siva declare what is lost and perished, peace and trouble, gain and loss, victory and defeat, svâhâ! By Satyanârâyaṇa, the Dêvata, and by the Rishis, true is the oracle, true is the diagram. Let the dice fall openly! svâhâ! Let the truth be seen!

(The efficacy of oracles and medical herbs is far from untruth. In praise of the Dêvata Vishnu.⁵⁶)

(Verse 1.) 444: Salutation to (thee) excellent man! Janârdana is well-pleased with thee. May all thy enemies be killed (if thou so desirest?)!

(Verse 2.) A Navikî : 333: Thou experiencest neither sorrow nor fatigue; nor hast thou any fear of either high or low;

Second Leaf: Obverse.

. thou wilt receive.

(Verse 3.) Even in the midst of the full enjoyment of all desires, one's happiness engenders molestation; (but) when it arises, God will ever allay thy fears.

(Verse 4.) A Kâlavidhi : 111: Thy intelligence is at fault; ; the undertaking which thou contempest will be fruitless.

(Verse 5.) (The first) Śapaṭa : 443: Thou wilt quickly be delivered from all diseases, and thou wilt also obtain happiness; (but) the advantage which thou wilt attain, will be neither very great nor very small.

(Verse 6.) The second Śapaṭa : 434: I see a terrible effort⁵⁷ (against those) with whom thou hast a conflict, (but) the work will be fruitless on account of which thou enquirest.

⁴⁹ The second pāda is short by one syllable. Perhaps read *dṛiśyatê tē*.

⁵⁰ Probably read *samâkkrāntâ*.

⁵¹ Read *dharmman*.

⁵² Either read *kâryam tē* or *kâryam tē*. The third pāda is short by one syllable.

⁵³ The italicised words are crossed out in the original.

⁵⁴ Read *vandhâni=ś=cha*.

⁵⁵ The third pāda has one syllable in excess. Omit *śubha* and read only *amubhâd*.

⁵⁶ The bracketed portion is mutilated in the text; and not quite intelligible to me. Of the syllables *chanayana* I can make nothing. They should represent the name of Mantra 444.

⁵⁷ i. e. the throw of the dice indicates to me the effort thou art making.

(Verse 7.) The third **Sapaṭa** : 344 : Thou contempest a meeting, (but) the fair-one does not join thee; thy body is heated with desire, (but) thou shalt obtain no enjoyment.⁵⁸

(Verse 8.) (The first **Māli**) : 343 : The peaceful⁵⁹ enjoyment of pleasure and wealth, and the fulfilment of all desires will, in a very short time, be thine, and that for ever.

(Verse 9.) (The second **Māli**) : 334 : This is a valuable thing to ask,⁶⁰ *viz.*, happiness that promotes good will; by patience that great object (will be attained), but if thou art impatient, thou wilt not obtain it.

(Verse 10.) (The third **Māli**) : 433 : This is considered a great object by thee; (but) there is a much better object than that : a safe journey into foreign parts and a (safe) return to one's friends.

(Verse 11.) (The first **Vahula** : 324 : Long life is a great thing; thou wilt not obtain this (which is) the best, (but) thou wilt obtain wealth in money and grain, and tools, and also enjoyments.

(Verse 12.) (The second **Vahula** : 432 : I see a place where thou hast determined to go from thence thou wilt safely⁶¹ return with thy goods. ;

(Verse 13.) (The third **Vahula** : 243 : Manifold, I see, are the things thou doest in order to obtain many sons (?); (but) look forward to thy own happiness; thou wilt obtain all that.

(Verse 14.) (The fourth **Vahula** : 423 : Manifold are thy successes, and all thy friends are pleased; while others⁶² envy thee;

Second Leaf: Reverse.

thou wilt not envy them.

(Verse 15.) (The fifth **Vahula** : 342 : Thou expectest the return of thy friend, and thou feelest sure⁶³ of success; (but) love is entertained reciprocally; why should he come? thou shouldst go.

(Verse 16.) The first **Kūṭa** : 414 : There is a quarrel with the king, and that quite ruins thy *dharma*; (but) thou hast obtained thy advantage; therefore thou shouldst solely attend to thy *dharma*.

(Verse 17.) The second **Kūṭa** : 144 : Unsteady is this thy place, nor comfortable, nor a source of pleasure; (but) thou wilt get free of it, even if thou art held fast by a *dēva*⁶⁴: there is no doubt about it.

(Verse 18.) The third **Kūṭa** : 441 : There is comfort; there is no fear; I see here also success; thou wilt enjoy women accomplished in the arts of love; from nowhere hast thou anything to fear.

(Verse 19.) The first **Bhadra** : 421 : Thy evils have disappeared; thy offences are removed; thou wilt overcome all thy enemies; thy gain is imminent.

(Verse 20.) The second **Bhadra** : 214 : In thy mind thou hast conceived a plan for the purpose of obtaining the first place; (but) wait some time; then it will fall into thy hands.

(Verse 21.) The third **Bhadra** : 142 : Thou wilt obtain a virgin,

Third Leaf: Obverse.

and wilt conciliate thy friend; the *dēvatas* will give thee wealth together with affection and good luck.

⁵⁸ The negative particle is practically misplaced; it must be constructed with the fourth pāda.

⁵⁹ I take *sama* in *sam-ānvita* to be the same as *sāmya*; or it may be a misspelling for *sama*.

⁶⁰ *Labhas*: I take to be the locative singular of *labhasa* "one who asks."

⁶¹ *lit.*, "taking thyself and thy goods." I read *arthāñ-cha*. The third pāda is short by one syllable, which may be mended by resolving the sandhi and reading *ch-aiṣa arthāñ-cha*.

⁶² I take *paras* as an adverb "on the other side," and *parā* as the abl. sing., for *parāt*. Or, *parā* may be taken as a verbal prefix with *spṛihayishyasi*.

⁶³ *Parā*, nom. sing., sol. *chintā*.

⁶⁴ Perhaps read *dēvabhi* (*dēvabhih*) "by the *dēvas*."

(Verse 22.) The fourth **Bhadra**: 241: Thou sufferest no loss whatever in thy business; thou hast no cause of fear from the *dēvatās*; as thou doest thy duties, thou wilt receive (thy desires).

(Verse:—) (The fifth **Bhadra**:) 412.⁶⁵

(Verse 23.) (The first) **Sakti**: 341: Thou art planning a marriage⁶⁶, and thou wilt soon accomplish it, and obtain an affectionate relative who will bestow on thee wealth and pleasures.

(Verse 24.) The second **Sakti**: 134: Thou art planning a union, and that will soon come to pass; the order has gone forth from the *Ásvins*,⁶⁷ nor will it be anything unpleasant.

(Verse 25.) The third **Sakti**: 413: I see that something extraordinary is at hand for thee and also a gain; in thy household also there will be an unequalled increase: there is no doubt about it.

(Verse 26.) The fourth **Sakti**: 314: As a king who has overcome all obstacles thou wilt, well furnished with troops, conquer thy enemy and constantly rule the whole earth under thy single sway.

(Verse 27.) The fifth **Sakti**: 431: Thou mayest not desire to have any friend, or thou mayest always delight in having a friend; (but) whether thou makest or dost not make friends, enmity comes without any cause.

(Verse 28.) The sixth **Sakti**: 431: Thou meditatest a meeting; that will certainly come to pass; in its proper time that object will be attained, and there will be no disappointment.

(Verse 29.) (The first) **Dundubhi**: 321c.: What thing of thine is lost or perished, or stolen by thieves, or passed into other hands, that thou wilt recover after a not very long time.

(Verse 30.) The second **Dundubhi**: 213: Whether thou art forsaken by friends, or whether thou art supported by friends, thou wilt obtain thy favourite objects, in spite of the envy of the *dēvatās*.

Third Leaf: Reverse.

(Verse 31.) The third **Dundubhi**: 132: I see that thou enjoyest health of body at the present time; from the worship of the *dēvatās* thou obtainest this rest.

(Verse 32.) The fourth **Dundubhi**: 231: I see that thou hast a grievous quarrel with thy enemies; (but) thou wilt suffer no harm from it, and wilt overcome thy adversary.

(Verse 33.) The fifth **Dundubhi**: 312: I see that thou wilt make a very good acquisition; moreover a son will be born to thee; thy wished-for desires thou wilt obtain: there is no doubt about it.

(Verse 34.) The sixth **Dundubhi**: 123: Thy mind is much perplexed; thy position is unstable; only wait one month; then thou wilt obtain happiness.

(Verse 35.) The first **Vṛisha**: 442: Whatever there is in thy house, cattle, grain and money, thou shouldst distribute among the *Brāhmanas*; thy advancement is (then) near at hand.

(Verse 36.) The second **Vṛisha**: 244: Thou art planning a meeting, and thy beloved is far away; (but) the fulfilment of all thy desires will come to pass in a not very long time.

(Verse 37.) The third **Vṛisha**: 424: Thou wilt suffer grievous bondage, but thou wilt regain thy place; thou wilt have thy reward and wilt also have peace.

(Verse 38.) The first **Prēshyā**:

⁶⁵ This verse, being Mantra 412, is wanting in the MS.

⁶⁶ Perhaps *parigraha* may be intended to be more general: 'possession of things.'

⁶⁷ *Ásvinai* I take to be intended for *Ásvinai*, the lost akshara may be supplied by reading either *ásvin-ai* (i. e., *ásvinā ēva*) or *ásvinair-ākṛitā*. As the *Ásvins* are always two, probably the latter reading is correct, though an unusual formation. The *Ásvins* are givers of luck. *Leḥhā* refers to the writing of a man's fate on his skull.

Fourth Leaf: Obverse.

422 : If thou desirest knowledge or , (but) sittest idly at home, thou wilt be altogether unsuccessful !

(Verse 39.) The second **Prêshya** : 242 : The thing that thou hast thought of, , it will not accomplish that business with regard to which thou enquirest.

(Verse 40.) The third **Prêshya** : 224 : The speech which thou hast meditated for the sake of that thing, it will bring to pass the acquisition of the thing for thee : there is no doubt about it.

(Verse 41.) The first **Viṭi** : 332 : Thou hast never to take any trouble, and art clever in thy business ; thou wilt not suffer any misfortune, and wilt overcome thy adversaries.

(Verse 42.) The second **Viṭi** : 323 : Thou wilt not meet the object of thy advantage, and wilt meet with disappointment ; (but) go quickly to another place, (and) thou wilt obtain very great happiness.

(Verse 43.) The third **Viṭi** : 233 : I see thy purpose ; it is with reference to some biped (man ?) ; it will come to pass for thee as surely as the edict of the deity.

(Verse 44.) The first **Karṇa** : 114 : Thou wilt be honoured with all ceremonies ; and good fortune, peace and the requisites of a king thou wilt obtain ; it will take place after a not very long time.

(Verse 45.) The second **Karṇa** : 141 ; By the act of God it has been destroyed, and thy whole property

Fifth Leaf: Obverse.

(Verse 46.) The third **Karṇa** : 411 : Thou meditatest going on a journey, but thou wilt meet with misfortune ; (thou wilt return) with thy business unfinished : there is no doubt about it.

(Verse 47.) The first **Sajâ** : 322 : Thou wilt defeat all thy enemies, but thou hast (one powerful adversary ; thou wilt first meet with success, (but) afterwards thou wilt suffer sorrow.

(Verse 48.) The second **Sajâ** : 232 : Thou dost not understand business, and thou wilt suffer regret ; but there will be a gain to thee, for thy *dêvatâ* is favourable.

(Verse 49.) The third **Sajâ** : 223 : A most serious danger of thy life has passed away ; thy safety is solely due to the favour of the *dêvatas*.

(Verse 50.) The first **Kâna** : 331 : The safety of thy person, profit and wealth are within thy grasp, and prosperity is at hand as sure as the word of God.

(Verse 51.) The second **Kâna Tantra** : 313 : Thou expectest health and abundant power : there is no doubt about it ; thou wilt certainly obtain prosperity, and abundant pleasures also.

(Verse 52.) The third **Kâna-Tantra** : 133 : Thou speakest the untruth sometimes, (and thou showest always ill-will to thy friend ; but wait, and by the favour of the *dêvatas* there will be prosperity.

Fifth Leaf: Reverse.

(Verse 53.) The first **Chufichuna** : 311 : I see that after a not very long time thou wilt be deprived of thy pleasures ; (but) thou wilt obtain another suitable place ; do not give way to despondency.

(Verse 54.) The second **Chufichuna** : 131 : Wealth and perfection : these two, and also family and rank, and all thy (other) desires thou wilt obtain, as surely as the word of God.

(Verse 55.) The third **Chufichuna** : 113 : Thou art deprived of thy money and (forsaken) by thy friends and well-wishers ; it appears to me as if thou wert troubled in thy mind about relief.

(Verse 56.) The first **Pañchi** : 221 : I see that thy position is unsafe and troubled; never mind ! thou shouldst undertake some business, and thou shalt be delivered from thy misfortune.

(Verse 57.) The second **Pañchi** : 122 : All regions are attacked alike; observe thou a seasonable line of conduct; otherwise thou wilt not have either happiness or business in them at any time.⁶⁸

(Verse 58.) The third **Pañchi** : 212 : Animal sacrifices and many other sacrifices thou wilt sacrifice; and complete oblations thou wilt give : there is no doubt about it.

(Verse 59.) Thy first **Khari** : 112 : Thy troubles have passed away and thy misfortune likewise; thou art delivered from thy unlucky star; thy prosperity is at hand.

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.

(Continued from page 106.)

CHAPTER IV. (continued).

THE AUTHOR AND THE LANGUAGE OF THE INSCRIPTIONS.

PART II. — THE LANGUAGE¹ (CONTINUED).

II. — THE GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE LANGUAGE; ITS HISTORICAL POSITION.

We have now passed in review the majority of the grammatical phenomena which are presented by the inscriptions of Piyadasi, in their different versions. But that is not sufficient. It is on account of the light thrown by them on more general facts, that these particular data more especially claim our interest. We have now reached a stage at which we can investigate these larger problems. Two points of view at once present themselves to us, according as we consider, either directly the condition of the language of which specimens are supplied by the inscriptions, or indirectly the general question of the linguistic state of affairs at the period, to which our texts bring us back. The first problem, again, may be looked at in two

⁶⁸ The reading here is corrupt; but this meaning seems to be plain.

¹ In the original French edition I stated at the conclusion of this study, and I now beg to repeat it at once here at the beginning, that I never intended, when writing these chapters, to examine under all their different aspects the vexed questions about Sanskrit and its history to which they refer. I only wished to bring to light a number of facts — either directly derived from the most ancient epigraphic records or at least connected with them — which to my mind are indeed highly important and which possess direct bearing upon the final settlement of these problems.

While proceeding along this track, I considered it useful to advance resolutely to the ultimate conclusions to which it seemed to me to lead, without dwelling, at least for the time, on the difficulties to which they might give rise, or the conflicts with other lines of argument in which they might result or appear to result. No one, I hope, will contend that the conflict escaped me, or that I meant to dispose of the points in question before having previously settled it one way or the other. But, on this occasion, I have not undertaken a task so vast and so comprehensive. On a ground so thickly overgrown, and so imperfectly surveyed, I fancy it may be advantageous to push on lines of reconnoitring straight forward, in what to some may appear a rather adventurous way. It is highly desirable that those who start from other points of view, and who propose to follow more direct or more beaten paths, should not be too dogmatic, nor dispose in too summary a manner of these side-explorations.

These brief remarks have a two-fold aim. For one, I wish to prevent any misconceptions, and also to check criticisms which, — probably by my own fault, — the present essay has called forth, and which I cannot find to be justified or to be based upon an adequate, faithful rendering of my views. Secondly, they will explain why, after several years, I have allowed it to appear again in its original tenor. Such changes as have been made in this translation concern only minor points; they aim at nothing but doing away with expressions which were either equivocal or too absolute, so as to mislead the reader as to what I really mean. Everyone knows how easily the preoccupation of one leading idea may carry even a cautious writer to an accidental use of expressions or statements which may distort in some way his real thought, and let it appear too affirmative, or too exclusive. I have tried my best to obviate this danger in the present, in the main, unaltered reproduction of this essay.

different ways. And, to sum up, we have to examine; (1), whether the monuments disclose differences of dialect in the strict sense of the word; (2), if beside dialectic peculiarities properly so called, they do not exhibit other peculiarities based on differences in the systems of orthography; and (3) if it is possible to draw, from the philological facts supplied by our texts, conclusions regarding the contemporary condition of the religious or learned, the Vedic or Saṅskṛit language. This would be the most logical order in which to deal with the matter, but I propose to discuss the second point first; so as to render the explanation, I hope, both clearer and shorter.

About one fact there can be no doubt:—Our inscriptions do not pretend to invariably represent in their integrity the sounds of the spoken language.

Proofs of this abound. The most general is that nowhere do they observe the rule of doubling homogeneous consonants.

It cannot, I think, be doubted that the doubling of consonants, resulting from assimilation, e.g., *tth* in *atthi* for *asti*, *vva* in *savva* for *sarva*, &c., was really observable in pronunciation. It must have been the case no less at this epoch, than in the more recent period when it was graphically represented. Moreover, in the case of doubling a nasal, the duplication is duly marked by means of *anusvāra*, as in *dhām̐ma*; and in several words, the sporadic prolongation of the preceding vowel, as in *dhāma* for *dharma*, *kāsati* for **karshyati*, *vāsa* for *varsha* is only an equivalent method, largely used to the present day, of expressing a real duplication. The same procedure is followed in texts of more recent date, as at Kanḥēri² (No. 15), where, in a single inscription, I find *dhāma*, *pāvata*, *sāva*, *ādha*.

But this is not all. The inscriptions in Indo-Bactrian characters, whether of the time of Aśoka or subsequent to him, do not distinguish graphically the long and the short vowels. This omission might be explained by the want of appropriate signs, but these signs would have been easy to create in an alphabet which has formed itself with the aid of so many conscious and learned additions. If these signs have not been added, it is certain that but small importance was attached to rendering exactly the various shades of pronunciation. The necessary signs existed in the Southern Alphabet, though neither at Khālsi, nor, I believe, at Bairāt or Rūpnāth, were they used for the *ā* or for the *u*. So far as regards Khālsi, this might be accounted for by the influence of the north-west, which manifests itself here in several phenomena; but the fact would none the less remain that this practice shows not an exact imitation of the pronunciation, but an orthographical system which, at least in some measure, neglects it. Even the versions which do distinguish the long vowels, display so many inaccuracies that they themselves bear witness to the little care which was taken in making the distinction.

One of two things is evident. Either the distinction between long and short vowels survived in the current language, and the texts noted it insufficiently, or it had become lost in speech, and they endeavoured to restore it in writing. Both hypotheses would thus indicate a lax attention to the exact representation of sounds, and the second also a characteristic tendency towards a learned orthography.

Other inconsistencies lead us to an analogous conclusion.

The diphthong *ai* has disappeared in all the Prākṛit dialects with which we are acquainted, and it is no less a stranger to the inscriptions of Piyadasi. Yet Girnar gives us an example: *thēra*, Skr. *sthavira*, is there written *thaira*, and in one passage *trayōdāsa* is spelt *traidāsa*. Can we believe that the diphthong, lost elsewhere, has survived in these two unique instances? Must we not clearly recognize here a half-learned orthography, inspired by the memory of the etymological origin?

² Unless otherwise stated, I cite the cave inscriptions by the numbers of the *Archæological Survey of Western India*, Vols. IV. and V.

It is a universal rule in the Prākṛit, both in the dialects of the inscriptions and in the literary languages, that before *anusvāra* a long vowel becomes short. In four or five instances, however, the long vowel of Sanskrit is retained: *ydtān* (VIII, 1), *susrusatān* (X, 2), *anuvīdhiyatān* (ibid.), *samachārān* (XIII, 7) at Girnar. It is plain that we have here purely and simply an orthography influenced by the learned language.

These last instances are mere accidents, but they enable us to judge better regarding those in which variations of orthography more nearly balance each other. In a certain number of consonantal groups composed of a mute and an *r*, instead of the disappearance of the *r*, compensated for by the doubling of the mute, we find at Girnar the etymological spelling, *pra*, *tra*, *sra*, *rva*, instead of *pa* (*ppa*), *ta* (*tta*), *sa* (*ssa*), *va* (*vva*). This spelling is by no means fixed, — as may be seen from a reference to the text of any single edict, — and it would be of little interest to quote here all the instances, one by one. It will be sufficient to state that we have the spelling *pra* about 45 times, as against the spelling *pa* 25 times: for *tra*, 30 times *ta*, 20 times *tra*: for *rva*, *rva* and *va* each about an equal number of times: for *bra*, once *bra*, against 6 or 7 times *ba*: once *sra* (for *rsa*, *rśa*), against once *sa*. Is it possible to contend that such an indifference represents the real spontaneous condition of the popular idiom, and that pronunciations corresponding to such different stages of phonetic decay, and that side by side in the same words, belonged actually to the same period of the normal development of the language? If it were possible to have any doubts on the point, it would be sufficient to refer to later facts in the linguistic history. When we read, in Hindi, *priya* beside *piya*, *putra* beside *pūta*, *brāhmaṇa* beside *bāmhana*, we have no hesitation. We know that the first of each of these pairs is an instance of learned orthography: that it is only a *tatsama*, that is to say, a word borrowed direct from Sanskrit, and restored to the current of the language. When in an inscription of the 24th year of Vāsithīputa Pulumāyi (Kārli No. 22, A. S.), we meet side by side the spellings *puttasya*, *sōvasakasya*, *vathavasyu*, and *budhara-khitasa*, *upāsakasa*, *prajā*, *parigahē*, we are confident that these genitives in *asya*, this spelling of *prajā*, cannot, at such a period, have represented the true pronunciation of the people; that there also they are *tatsamas*. How can we avoid drawing the same conclusion from facts which, although more ancient, are none the less strictly analogous?

It is therefore certain that these sanskritized forms do not represent the actual stage of the contemporary phonetic decay. One point, however, appears to be open to some doubt. The *tatsamas* of the modern languages actually enter into circulation, and that with either the ancient pronunciation, or with an approach to it. They are words of special origin, but at the same time real words of the current speech. The *tatsamas* of Mixed Sanskrit are, on the other hand, purely orthographical, for they belong to a purely literary language.³ That is to say while, in the modern tongues, the loans from the ancient language only deal with bases, and consequently have no effect on the grammar, in the Sanskrit of the *Gāthās*, the imitations extend even to the inflexions, i. e. to elements which would escape any arbitrary action of the learned in a really living language.

In which of these two categories are we to class the *tatsamas* of Piyadasi? We must, I think, consider them in the same light as those of the dialect of the *Gāthās*, and recognise them as 'orthographic' *tatsamas*. The examples given above show that little heed was paid to accurately representing the pronunciation and that the etymological form was readily adopted in cases in which the vulgar pronunciation must have been markedly different. That is in itself a strong reason, but we shall see, besides, that the classical language had not yet been so developed into practical application at this epoch as to allow us to assume that it could have penetrated into the stream of popular use. Moreover, in the different versions of the texts, the proportion of these *tatsamas* is very unequal. If it were a case of forms readopted into current speech, such an inequality would be surprising; it is more easily explained by a

³ I shall refer to the dialect of the *Gāthās* or Mixed Sanskrit in the following chapter.

local predominance of a special orthographical system, or rather of special orthographical tendencies.

The observations which still remain for me to make are of a kind to add further proof to these conclusions.

The orthography of Kapur di Giri, as in Saṅskṛit, distinguishes the three sibilants, *s*, *ś*, *ṣ*. Is it really the case that the dialect of this region retained a distinction which, if we are to judge from the parallel versions, was lost everywhere else? It is sufficient to record the irregularities accumulated in the distribution of these sibilants, to convince the reader that nothing of the sort occurred.

We read *ś* instead of *ṣ* in *manuśa* (II, 4; 5) beside *manuśa* (XIII, 6), and in the futures which are formed in *śati* for *śhyati*. We have *s* for *ś* in *yēsu* (XIII, 4), *arabhiyisu* (I, 2), beside *nīkramishu*, &c., in *abhisita*, which is never written *aśhishita*; and for *ś* in *anusāchano* (XIII, 2); *samachariya* (XIII, 8), *śrēsta* (I, 2); *ṣ* for *s* in *pañchashu* (III, 6), *śashu* (XIII, 8); *ś* for *s* in *anusāśanañ* (IV, 10), *anusāśisanñti* (ibid.). It cannot be imagined that this confusion may be referred to the real usage of the local dialect. It can only be accounted for by one theory, the only one which explains analogous mistakes, whether in manuscripts or in more modern Sasukṛit inscriptions. The error of the engraver or of the scribe arises in both cases from the fact that he has before him a learned spelling, in the application of which he cannot be guided by the usage of the current dialect, because the distinctions he has to deal with are strangers to it. The locative *pañchashu*, a clumsy imitation of locatives in *ēśhu*, is very characteristic as illustrating the way in which the sibilants were used at Kapur di Giri.

The fact must not be lost sight of that this method of writing is not an isolated example; it is borne witness to by other parallel ones, which leave us in no doubt as to what conclusions we are to draw from it. It is certain that the distinction between the sibilants did not exist in the dialect of the western coast; yet that does not prevent us finding all three at Nāsik (Nos. 1 & 2, A. S. iv, 114), in dedications, which in every other respect are couched in pure Prākṛit, not even in mixed Saṅskṛit. As at Kapur di Giri, a mistake, *sakasa* for *śakasa*, is there to warn us as to the true character of this use. It is the same in No. 27 of Kanhēri (A. S. v. 95), in which the pretension to learned orthography leads to such forms as *śunhānañ*, *sārvvaśat-vānañ*.

In the instances which we have just passed in review, we may perhaps be allowed to hesitate as to the origin of the spelling, though not as to the sound which it represents or is intended to represent; the problem becomes more thorny when we consider certain orthographical phenomena, which express accurately neither the learned form, nor the form adopted in popular usage; — which can, in some respects, be considered as intermediate between these two poles of linguistic movement.

Dr. Pischel⁴ has correctly pointed out that, at Kapur di Giri, the words which I have, according to precedent, transcribed as *dharmā*, *darśi*, *darśana*, *harmaye*, *varsha*, *purva*, &c., are really written *dhrama*, *draśana*, &c., the *r* being joined to the consonant *dh*, *d*, &c. He adds that here, as in the coin-legends which observe the same method of spelling, this writing certainly represents a dialectic peculiarity, and that the people for whom the tables of Kapur di Giri were inscribed, actually pronounced the word as *dhrama*, *pruva*, &c. At this point I am unable to agree with his deductions.

He bases his argument specially on certain readings, such as *mruga*, equivalent to *mṛiga*, in the first edict of Kapur di Giri, *graha* and *dridha*, equivalent to *griha* and *dridha* in the 13th, *pariprukhha*, equivalent to *pariprichchha* in the 8th, *vraçhha*, equivalent to *vriçsha*, in the 2nd edict of Girnar. He compares the forms *ru*, *ri*, *ra*, taken by the vowel *ri* in several modern dialects.

⁴ Götting. Gel. Anzeigen, 1881, p. 1316.

I think that this comparison, unless I am much mistaken, goes directly contrary to his conclusion. Modern forms like *graha*, *griha*, *mrāga*, *mraṅga*, *mrīga*, by the side of which we also find others such as *mīrga*, &c., are in no way direct derivatives of the Sanskrit *mṛiga*, but are *tatsamas*; that is, nothing but simple equivalents of the form *mṛiga*, *griha*, which itself is also used in the modern languages. They are only instances of such approximate spelling as could be realized with the elements really existing in the popular language, instead of borrowing from the learned language a special sign, corresponding to a special pronunciation which has ceased to exist for more than two thousand years. In both cases, the situation is not only analogous, but is identical. I offer for both, one and the same explanation, — that which is incontestable for the more recent one: in *mruga*, *graha*, *driḍha*, *vrakha* of the inscriptions, I can see, as in *mrīga*, *graha*, *draḍha*, *vraksha* or *vrakha* of existing languages, only *tatsamas*, loans really taken from the learned language, but represented by an orthography which, by the absence (whether voluntary or not is of little importance at the present stage of the inquiry) of the sign for the vowel *ri*, was condemned to tentative and approximative devices. These examples in no way argue against my method of treating the groups *dhr*, *pr*, &c., in the words which I have quoted. On the contrary, they present certain precedents of a return towards the learned language, operating even at the price of imperfect orthographical expedients. It is exactly in the same light that we must consider the spellings which now occupy us.

In the first place, the state of affairs at Kapur di Giri, so far as concerns consonantal compounds including an *r*, strongly resembles that which we have established for Girnar. We find there *paṭi* beside *praṭi* (also *prati* and *paṭri*), *sava*, *savatra*, by the side of *sarvā*, *sarvāṇ*, *sarvatra*, &c. Without attempting to compile exact statistics, the fact is, in a general way, indisputable. It is natural to deduce from it the same conclusions as those to which we have come with regard to Girnar. We must not, therefore, treat the orthographical peculiarities of this language with absolute rigour. If the *r* in the words which we are discussing, is taken from the learned language by an arbitrary artifice of writing, why should we be astonished that the writers should have allowed themselves some liberty in the manner of representing it, when they have just as often taken the liberty of omitting it altogether? In Hindī the spellings *dhurama*, *karama*, *gandhrava*, in no way correspond to any peculiar phonetic phenomena, but are merely equivalent modes of writing the *tatsamas* *dhurma*, *karma*, *gandharva*.

Mr. Beames (*Compar. Gram.* I, 321) has quoted in the ancient Hindī of Chand, spellings such as *śrabba* (= *sarva*), *dhramma* (= *dharma*), *sōvranna* (= *suvarṇa*), *brana* (= *varṇa*), *brunnand* (= *varṇand*), *prabata* (= *parvata*), *kramma* (= *karma*), *kana* (= *kārṇa*), &c. I do not think that these examples can be appealed to against the argument, which I here maintain. It is more than clear that all these spellings were, at the time of Chand, loans taken from the vocabulary of the learned language. The doubling of the consonant in *śrabba*, *kramma*, &c., sufficiently proves that the true pronunciation of the people was *śabba*, *kamma*, &c. Different motives, metrical or otherwise, may have suggested these spellings, but they prove nothing as to the real pronunciation. Far from being contrary to my opinion, they supply, at a distance of some fifteen hundred years, a phenomenon, strictly comparable with that which we have shown to exist at Kapur di Giri. This resemblance of methods is explicable by the resemblance of the conditions which called them into being. In each case we have a language, which, not having as yet a regulated system of spelling, attempts, with groping and uncertainty, to approximate itself, by the simplest means available, to the practice of a language which enjoys a higher degree of reverence.

If we consider the facts by themselves, would this change of *dharma* to *dhrama*, of *pūrva* to *pruva*, of *karma* to *krama* be likely or probable? I think not. Alongside of *pruva*, there is at least one passage (VI, 14), in which it seems clear that we must read *purva*. So also we find that coins wrote *varma* alongside of *dhrama*; that by the side of *draśana* at Kapur di Giri, we have, at Girnar, an example of *darsana*. The form which all these words have invariably taken in the popular pronunciation, *dhahma*, *puvva*, *kahma*, *vassa* or *vāsa*, &c., depends uniformly on

a former pronunciation, *dharma*, and not *dhrama*, *varsa* and not *vrasa* &c. If people said *arva*, why should they have said *pruva*?

We should doubtless be glad to discover with certainty the cause of these inconsistencies; but our hesitation in this respect proves nothing against conclusions, which appear to me to be satisfactorily proved. It is no use counting all the variations in the mode of writing: by the side of *sarva*, we frequently have *sava*; *mita* beside *mitra*, *puta* beside *putra*, &c., &c.; we find written *kirti*, and *vadhati*, *vadhita*, &c. It is not surprising that, in an orthography which is the arbitrary imitation of a learned pronunciation, a certain approximation should have appeared sufficient. The example of Girnār proves that we must not take the phonetic value of the signs too strictly. It is clear that in δ $\frac{1}{2}$ and in $\frac{1}{2}$ δ the same character δ signifies at one time, *vra*, and at another time *rva*. Reasons of graphic convenience may have had their share of influence. A cursive sign for *r* following a consonant had been fixed at this epoch but they had not fixed one for an *r* preceding one. It is easy to prove this in the more recent inscriptions. They retained the first sign, and invented a new one for the second case (cf. the inscription of Sūē Vihar.⁵) The direct combination of the characters γ and $\frac{1}{2}$, γ and γ was sufficiently easy and symmetrical, but the combination of γ with γ , $\frac{3}{2}$ &c., being more complicated, gave greater opportunities for confusion. Without doubt such a consideration can only have been a secondary one, but the special conditions under which, as I have pointed out, this spelling was applied with its etymological tendency, are precisely such as to make its action admissible. They rendered much less urgent both the invention of a new sign, and the use of compound letters which might be awkward to engrave.

We are thus led to recognise in certain cases a graphic method, which not only does not faithfully represent the real pronunciation, but which in endeavouring to approximate itself to etymological writing, treats it with a certain amount of freedom. This forms a very useful basis from which to judge, what is, in my opinion, a more difficult case. I refer to the groups $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{2}$ at Girnār, regarding which I regret to find that my conclusions did not meet with the concurrence of Dr. Pischel. This difference of opinion renders it necessary for me to complete the observations outlined on pages 26 and 29 of the Introduction to Vol. I. of the original work.

It is quite clear, as Dr. Pischel allows, that the appearance of the group $\frac{1}{2}$ will not help us to decide between the transcription *pta*, and the transcription *tpa*. Every one agrees in reading $\frac{1}{2}$ *s!* and $\frac{1}{2}$ *st*. The exact position of the sign is therefore irrelevant. All the more has the question embarrassed the various commentators, and they have successively proposed various readings. The arguments invoked in favour of *pta* are far from convincing me. I cannot admit that the form *appā* for *ātman*⁶ presupposed an intermediate *aptā*. The group *pt* regularly gives *tt* in Prakṛit, as in *gutta*. It is *tp* which gives *pp*, as in *uppala*. Now *apa* is the very form which the most modern inscriptions of the west, near Girnār, regularly give us for *ātman*, and I do not think that any one would suggest a pronunciation *aptā* as necessarily intermediate between *ātmā* and *attā*. It is in the same way that *chattārō* is derived directly from *chatvārō*, like *satta* from *satva*, and *atta* from *atvā* for *ātmā*. If, under the influence of *t*, the *v* of *atvā* can have become a *p*, the same phenomenon is equally explicable in *chatpārō* for *chatvārō*, and *ārabhitpā* for *ārabhitvā*.

⁵ For example $\frac{1}{2}$ = *rya*. We catch, I think, this new notation in course of formation in instances such as the sign $\frac{1}{2}$ = *rkhd* (*arkhēviyasa*) of the coins of Archebios (cf. Sallet, *Die Nachf. Alexanders*, p. 113).

⁶ Note by translator.—The following extracts from the statistical portion of this chapter, previously published, see ante, pp. 8 and 10, will assist the reader in following the argument.

GIRNAR.—*tm* becomes *tp* in *ātpa*, XII, 3, 4, 5, 6.

tv becomes *tp*: *alśchētpā*, XIV, 6; *ārabhitpā*, I, 8; *chatpārō*, XIII, 8; *dasayitpā*, IV, 4; *hitatpā*, VI, 11; *pievititpā*, X, 4; *tadātpānē*, X, 1; it becomes *t* in *satiyaput*, II, 2.

KAPUR DE GIRI.—*tm* becomes *t* in *ata*, XII, passim.

tū becomes *t*.

This being said, while I uphold the transcription *tpa*, after Burnouf and (as Dr. Pischel very properly reminds me) Signor Ascoli, I admit that I can produce no decisive facts to prove that this spelling represents something different from its apparent pronunciation. Neither the use, which Dr. Kern has pointed out, of the Javanese spelling of the group *tp* to express simply the sound *tt*, nor the analogous instances, have any demonstrative force. Nevertheless, the phonetic conditions which Girnar displays in other respects are not such as to lead us to believe that at this epoch, the contact of two mutes, like *tp*, could have been tolerated by the language without assimilation. Several traits, which would seem to prove the more archaic character of the language of Girnar, disappear if we consider them in their true light as simple graphic restorations, and it would be very improbable that a language which so invariably assimilates mutes when they are primitive, as in *samata*, *guti*, &c., should have, at the same time, preserved their original power for groups of secondary mutes, resulting from an earlier phonetic alteration. Without, therefore, being in a position to furnish categorical proof of my opinion, I cannot refrain from being impressed with this belief that the group *tp* at Girnar represents *pp* as its real pronunciation, the etymological origin of which is shadowed forth in the writing by an artifice, which has, so to speak, been arrested half way.

As regards the groups *st*, *st*, I have the same good fortune to be in accord with Signor Ascoli, and the same regrets that I cannot agree with Dr. Pischel. I know, and I have expressly stated, that Hémachandra (IV, 290, 291) teaches in Māgadhi the spellings *st* for *ṣṭa* and *st* for *st* and *st*.⁷ Dr. Pischel draws attention to the fact that the *Mṛicchohha-kapī* has forms like *bhaṣṭaka*, *chīṣṭādi*. I do not wish to insist upon reasons which depend somewhat on individual impression; but I cannot easily believe in dialectic forms such as *paṣṭa* for *paṣṭa*, *asta* for *artha*. They are phonetic modifications so isolated, as far as I can see, on Hindū soil, that it seems to me very difficult to admit their existence; but I recognize that such a scruple has no demonstrative force. We shall at least see from what I shall have occasion to say regarding the Prākṛit of the grammarians, that they are entitled to but very weak authority as regards the exact state of the popular language, above all at the epoch with which we are now dealing; and here, for example, the evidence of Hémachandra may very well be taken as only indicating the more or less accidental retention, the more or less arbitrary application, of an archaic spelling. At the same time it must be remembered that the facts thus quoted, agree but imperfectly with those with which it is desired to compare them. Hémachandra mentions this spelling as peculiar to Māgadhi, and we are asked to recognise it again at the other end of India, in Surāshṭra; we do not find it anywhere in the other versions of our inscriptions, which, owing to several significant traits, the nominative in *ṣ*, the substitution of *l* for *r*, may fairly claim relationship with Māgadhi. This is not of a nature to give strength to the authority of the grammarians, at least as regards their geographical terminology.

⁷ Note by translator.—As this is not printed together with the statistical portion of the chapter which has already been given *ante*, pp. 3, 4 and pp. 10, 11, the following extracts from that portion will assist the reader to understand what follows.

GIRNAR, — *tth* becomes *st* in *uṣṭāna*, VI, 9, 10.

rth becomes *th*, as *aṭha*, *passim*.

shṭr becomes *st*: *rāṣṭika* V, 5.

stth becomes *st*: *adhīstāna*, V, 4; *stst*, IV, 10; *nīstāna*, IX, 6; *tistānt*, IV, 9; *tistīya*, VI, 13.

st is preserved: *ast* *passim*, &c.; — it becomes *st* in *anusast*, VIII, 4, al.

sth becomes *st* in *gharastāni*, XII, 1; — and *st* in *stīta*, VI, 4.

KAPUR DI GIRI.

tt becomes cerebralised into *ṭ* under the influence of an *r*-sound, in *dharmavutaṇi*, XIII, 10; *nivāṣṭiya*, IX, 19.

tth is written both *th* and *th* in *uṣṭāna*, VI, 15.

rth usually gives us *th* (*aṭha*, *passim*), but also *th* (*ṭhaṇi*, IX, 20; *anātheshu*, V, 12).

shṭr is written *st* in *rasṭikānaṇi*, V, 12.

stth is written *th* in *srēṭha* IV, 10; *th* in *tithē*, IX, 20, *adhithanē*, V, 18; and *st* in *srēsta*, I, 2, and *tistiti*, IV, 10.

st remains unchanged, whether written with the special sign to which Dr. Bühler appears to have given its true value, or with the group *st* as in *sahastuta*, IX, 19.

sth becomes *th*: *chirathitika*, V, 18; *grahatka*, XIII, 4; and also *th*, *grahatani*, XII, 1.

The groups which the grammarian expressly writes *śt*, with the dental *s* (cf. *Sūtra* 289), the *Mr̥ichchhakaṭṭi*, extending the use of the palatal *ś* peculiar to Māgadhi, writes *śt*, and the verb *tishṭhati*, for which the spelling *chishṭhadi* is expressly enjoined by *Sūtra* 298, is written in the drama *chīṣṭadi* (Pischel, loc. cit.). Between the grammarian and our inscriptions there is a still wider discord: *śt* is no more written *śt* at Girnar, than *rth* is written *st*.

The mere observation of facts such as those which exist at Girnar would be sufficient to awaken our scruples. I find it difficult to believe, as Dr. Pischel has ingeniously suggested, that the absence of the aspiration in *śita* and *sēṣa*, are a direct inheritance from the primitive period which existed before the birth of the secondary aspiration of Vedic Sanskrit. Should we further conclude that the word *sresta* at Kapur di Giri (1st edict) is also a witness of this same period, when the sibilant *śh* and the other cerebrals had not as yet developed? As for claiming the same antiquity for the Pāli form *aṭṭa* (equivalent to *arta*) for *artha*, the uniform use of the aspirate in all our versions is far from favouring this conjecture. In any case, the Pāli spelling *aṭṭa* being uniformly absent from all our inscriptions cannot be relied upon as a basis for the archaic origin of the *t* in *śita*. I therefore consider that I am right in doubting whether the popular pronunciation had really eliminated the aspiration, in a case in which, as everyone knows, as everyone can judge by a reference to Prākṛit orthography, the consonant is invariably aspirated, even when the aspiration is not original, i.e., when Sanskrit does not write it as aspirated. Is it really to be believed that the people pronounced *uṣṭāna* (Girnar, VI, 9, 10), when the assimilated form *utthāna* is the only one used, even in the learned language and in its system of etymological spelling? If they really did pronounce *stāna*, *śita*, can *uṣṭāna* be considered as anything but a purely orthographical approximation to these words, guided and determined by the feeling of etymology? The forms *anusasṭi* (for *anusasti*, the only probable one) beside *saṁstruta*, *gharastāni* (instead of *stāni*), beside *śita*, and at Kapur di Giri, *sṛēsta* (instead of *śrēṣṭa*) by the side of *śrēṣṭhaṇ* (IV, 10), *tistiti* beside *tithē* and *adhithana* (V, 12; al.), *dipista* beside *aṭṭha* (= *asṭau*) are as many errors which it would be hard to explain if we considered the orthography as an actual expression of the existing pronunciation.

Now, Girnar is comparatively near the tract which furnishes us numerous inscriptions for the period following. Would it not be surprising that in none of them, not even in the most ancient, at Sāñchi and at Nānāghāt, has a single trace of so significant a dialectic peculiarity been discovered? What we do find is at Sāñchi (No. 160), the proper name *dhamaṣṭhīri*, while in all the analogous instances, *sēṣin*,⁸ &c., the assimilation is carried out. Again at Kārli (No. 22), in a text of the time of Vāsithīputa Sātakaṇi, we find *hitasughaṣṭh[i]tay[ē]*, beside *nīṭhō*. In this instance forms such as *puttasya*, *sūvasakasya* beside *budharakhitasa*, *upāsakasa*, leave no doubt as to the nature of the spelling. We have here a text couched half in Prākṛit, half in mixed Sanskrit, and we know, without any hesitation, that the spelling *sthiti* is a *tatsama*, or, which comes to the same thing, an instance of learned orthography. Does not all analogy, every probability, compel us to accept the same conclusion for Girnar?

It is true that this mode of writing, *st* and *śt*, appears at Girnar with a certain regularity, but this should not mislead us, after the facts which we have already pointed out regarding groups which contain an *r*.⁹ I maintain that *st* and *śt* are conservative methods of spelling the groups *tth* and *ṭṭh* which arise in Prākṛit from a dental or cerebral sibilant followed by its mute. They have been extended to groups originating from *sth* and *shṭh* (that is to say a dental or cerebral sibilant followed by an aspirated mute), for the very simple reason that, in the assimilation of Prākṛit these groups result in the same pronunciation as do *st* and *śt*. From

⁸ I do not speak of *chilāṭhitika* in the inscription of Piyadasi. It is in Māgadhi, and, as we shall see, cannot be taken as an authority for the local dialect.

⁹ At Kapur di Giri, the analysis, *et*, which Dr. Bühler has proved for a sign hitherto generally read *th*, has drawn the spelling of the word *sresta* from its isolation: but the inconsistencies which have been cited above in the transcriptions of the Sanskrit groups *shṭ*, *shṭh*, still remain not one whit less characteristic and instructive.

this point of view, anomalies like *uṣṭāna* and *anusuṣṭi* can be easily explained. *uṣṭāna* is only another way of spelling *uṣṭhāna*. The cerebralization, for which *anuṣṭāsti* supplies no pretext, could creep into the pronunciation of *anusatthi* under the influence of the analogy which it suggests with forms like *siṭṭha*, *anusitṭha*. A practice of this kind, extending even to words in which it has no etymological justification, is certainly not without example in Hindi usage. I content myself with quoting the use of the groups *gr*, *tr* in Jain Prakṛit,¹⁰ used to represent merely a doubled *g* or *t*, and that even when it is not justified by etymology, — in *pōyralā*, i. e. *pōggālā* (*pudgālā*), as well as in *uḷagra*. Prof. Weber has not on this account dreamed of suggesting that the pronunciation *ugra*, *udagra* has been preserved, but very rightly concludes that we must everywhere read *yga*.

The preceding remarks do not exhaust the instances in which we are permitted to infer that the orthography of the Edicts of Piyadasi is not strictly phonetic. Other spellings deserve, from this point of view, to be noticed here. Some are significant by their very character and by their inconsistencies; others, either better preserved or altered more than the mean level of phonetic decay permits, reveal in turn either an accidental imitation of the cultivated idiom, or the contemporary existence of a popular language into which the mode of writing of our inscriptions artificially introduces a regularity unknown in practice.

In the first category is contained the use of 卐 . This brings me again to Dr. Pischel's remarks. I must confess that I can no longer hold to the opinion, originally expressed by me, that the sign 卐 at Khālsi was only another form of 卐 . I admit that this sign, literally *kyā*, corresponds to a special shade of pronunciation, although it does not appear to be easy to define it. The concurrence of the forms *kaḷiṅgyā*, *kaḷiṅgyāsu*, *kaḷiṅgyāni*, which Dr. Bühler has been the first to identify at Khālsi (XIII, 5, 6), does not throw much light on the problem; but to whatever conclusion we are led, it will remain none the less certain that the engravers have displayed a singular inconsistency. According to Dr. Pischel himself, beside seventeen instances in which the suffix *ika* is written *ika*, there are seven in which the spelling *ika* is retained. It is very clear that one or other of these two methods of writing does not accord with the exact pronunciation. What are we to say about the Delhi inscriptions, in which we find *k* in two isolated examples, in *ambāvaḍḍikā* and *adhakāsiḍḍāni* (Col. Ed. VII-VIII, 2), whereas everywhere else the suffix invariably retains the form *ika*?

I confess that I find some difficulty in avoiding an explanation, which, at the first glance will appear singular and rash. In various coins of Spalagadama, of Spalirisos (Sallet, p. 154), and of Gondophares (p. 169), we find *dharmiasa* side by side with the ordinary form *dharmika*. On the other hand, the coins of Lysias (*ibid.* p. 154) have alternately *lisikasa* and *lisiasa*. The pronunciations *ika* and *iya* do not appear to have belonged to the same period of phonetic development, and it is tempting to conclude that the popular pronunciation was *iya*, (or *ia*, which is the same thing), of which *ika* represents the learned spelling; that, in fact, people read the latter *iya*, as seems to be proved by the writing *lisikasa* for *lisiasa*. The sign 卐 ought hence to be considered as a compromise between the real pronunciation, indicated by the *y*, and the *tatsama* orthography represented by the *k*. The spelling *alikaśadala* must be explained by some play of etymology, which, in order to lend to the foreign name a Hindi appearance, seems to have sought in the first portion of the word for the Prakṛit *alika*, *aliya*, corresponding to the Sanskrit *alika*. I do not underrate the difficulties of this solution. If it were certain, it would lend a singular confirmation to my method of considering the orthography of our inscriptions, but I recognise that it is in no way certain. I only put it forward as a conjecture, which is, in my opinion, a likely one, and I do not propose to take advantage of it elsewhere for any more general conclusions. If we neglect it, and content ourselves with a simple statement of the facts, we find at all events that, at least in this particular point,

spelling of our inscriptions, not being consistent with itself, does not endeavour to accurately represent the pronunciation.¹¹

Kapur di Giri in several instances uses *j* and *y*, the one for the other: *ja[ṣ]* (equivalent to *yad*), V, 11; *ananijam*, VI, 16; *samaya*, I, 2; *kaṇḍōya*, V, 12; XIII, 9; *raya*, V, 11; VI, 14; IX, 18; X, 21; XI, 23; XIII, 1, beside *raja*, VIII, 17, &c. Perhaps even at Girnar we find an analogous case, if we must really really read (XII, 7) *srūṇḍju*, for *srūṇḍju*, equivalent to *srūṇḍyu*. At any rate, *ṇayāsu* for *niyāsu*, is purely sporadic, contrary to analogy, and, to all appearance, an arbitrary spelling.

These exceptional spellings follow a double direction. Several bear witness to an effort to approach the etymological forms. For instance, *saḍṇisati*, against all analogy, retains its final consonant. No one can doubt that Dhauli and Jaugada represent exactly the same dialect, and the same pronunciation, and hence *ḷkatiya* at Jaugada (I, 2) and *saṇmyāpaṭipati* (IX, 16), as compared with *ḷhacha* and *saṇmāḍ* at Dhauli, can only be taken as kinds of *tatsamas*. So also with forms like *akasmā* at Dhauli, *Adhigichya*, equivalent to *adhilritya*, for *adhigicha*, at Bhabra, shews us an orthography which is undecided and hesitating.

In other places the writing betrays by inadvertencies that the phonetic level of the spoken language has already fallen below that which is usually marked by the ruling habits of the written one. I refer to softenings like *adhigichya* for *adhilritya* at Bhabra, *libi* alongside of *lipi* at Dehli, *lōga*, *lōgika*, *luḷḷyu* at Jaugada, or, inversely, to irregular hardenings such as *kṇḍōcha* at Dhauli, *paṭipātayati* at Jaugada, *paḍhum* at Kapur di Giri, or, again, isolated inflexions like *janāḍ* at Khālsi, *mahidḍyō* at Girnar.

It would not be impossible to increase the number of indications of this nature; but, neither the condition of the monuments, nor the accuracy of our facsimiles, would allow us to attain to complete statistics. I stop myself here, and proceed to sum up.

¹¹ The translator ventures to take the liberty of appending the following note by him on this character, which originally appeared in the *Academy* for October 1890:—

This character has excited considerable controversy. It is admittedly a compound of the sign for *k* and the sign for *y*, and, graphically, it represents *kya*. In the Khālsi inscription it is substituted (but by no means uniformly) for the *k* which we should expect in the termination *ikā*; and it also occurs in the foreign word *alikyasadala*. It is also found twice in the Delhi columnar inscription. All scholars agree that no completely satisfactory explanation has been given for this form. It seems to me that the following is not unreasonable.

The spelling of Piyadasi's inscriptions presents several instances of false analogy. M. Senart has given strong reasons for believing that when Piyadasi at Girnar wrote *st*, he meant to represent the sound *tth*. It was a mistaken attempt to revive an old-fashioned spelling. The scribe knew that Sanskrit *śt* became *tth* in Prākṛit, and hence wrongly assumed that every Prākṛit *tth* was derived from *śt*. Therefore, to shew his learning, whenever he came to a *tth*, he wrote it *st*, even in cases when *tth* represented not *śt*, but *śth*.

I think that this *kya* is a similar instance of false analogy. The Māgadhi Prākṛit termination *ikā* is liable to have its penultimate vowel lengthened, thus, *ikā*. Then, by a well-known rule, the *i* can again be shortened, the consonant following being at the same time doubled in compensation, thus, *ikkā*. Instances of this are not uncommon in literature; and, judging from the modern languages of India, must have been extremely common in conversation. Prākṛit examples will be found in § 203 of Dr. Hoernle's *Gauḍian Grammar* and I need not quote them here. As the Khālsi and the Delhi inscriptions were written in Piyadasi's Māgadhi dialect, we need not be surprised if we find this doubling occurring in them too.

Now Sanskrit *kya* does become *ikka* in Prākṛit; and I believe that the scribe, coming upon an *ikka* with a totally different derivation of which he was ignorant, and wishing to shew his learning, represented that *ikka* also by *kya*, just as his brother at Girnar represented *tth* by *st*, even when it had nothing whatever to do with that compound. If we assume, as suggested by M. Senart, that the scribe endeavoured to connect the foreign word *Alikyasadala* with the Sanskrit *alika* (an instance of a common kind of word-play in Sanskrit literature), we find an additional confirmation of my suggestion. The *i* in *alika* is long; its being shortened shews that the word must have been pronounced *alikka* in Piyadasi's time. Accordingly, the engraver, coming upon another *kk*, followed his custom and wrote it *kya*.

It will be observed that this accounts for the want of uniformity with which *kya* appears in Piyadasi's inscriptions. M. Senart shews that at Khālsi *ikyā* occurs seventeen and *ikā* seven times. At Delhi there are only two instances of *ikyā*, *ikā* being used everywhere else. So, also, in Māgadhi Prākṛit both the terminations *ikkā* and *ikā* appear to have been concurrently and indifferently used, just as at the present day a man of Magadha will say in the same breath, *chhoḷakā* and *chhoḷakkā*, *tanikā* and *tanikkā*, *tanukā* and *tanukkā*.—G. A. G.

It is certain that the orthography of our inscriptions does not always exactly reflect the actual pronunciation. It is unequal to the task when it neglects to notice double consonants or long vowels, and it overshoots the mark when, at Girnar, it retains a long vowel, either before *anusvāra*, or before a group of consonants. Besides this, it elsewhere gives evidence, as, for example, in the notation of the groups which contain an *r*, of a significant indifference in regard to phonic expressions which belong to diverse periods of the development of the language. It is, therefore, sure that this orthography, in a certain number of cases, obeyed (as we call them) learned historic influences. Like the modern languages, like the mixed Sanskrit of the *Gāthās*, it is full of words or methods of writing, which constitute so many graphic *tatsamas*, and which consequently form an artificial and learned element. There is no ground for citing against this proposition the ignorance of the engravers. They may be responsible for certain material errors, for certain inconsistencies, but not for a system of orthography. They applied that system, it is true, but, however imperfect it may have been, it must have been founded by persons who were educated, skilled men. Even at the present day, it is evidently the learned caste that takes these loans, which, entering the popular language, gradually extend themselves to the most ignorant. In its generality, therefore, the principle appears to me to be unassailable, and those facts, which are certain, justify by themselves important conclusions as regards the light in which we should consider the language of our inscriptions.

Other facts, such as those which concern the groups *st*, *sf*, *tp* at Girnar, allow more room for contradiction, and I only claim probability for my opinion regarding them. I have merely one more observation to add. It is specially at Girnar and at Kapur di Giri that we meet these semi-historic modes of writing. If my interpretation of them is accepted as correct, they will add seriously to the balance in favour of the conclusion to which the undisputed facts tend.

This conclusion has a corollary. It implies that the differences of dialect between the popular languages, which are reflected by the various versions of our inscription, are less decided than we should at first be induced to consider them, judging from the appearance of the orthographies. If they are really separated by some characteristics, they have, in general, arrived at nearly equivalent stages of phonetic corruption. The more prominent points of difference, which attract our attention at first sight, have their origin in tendencies, more or less accidental, of word-borrowing or of modes of writing, — in the greater or less use of *tatsamas*. This result is in itself *à priori* so probable, that it might almost be invoked in favour of the conclusions which I have endeavoured to establish. It is, assuredly, scarcely probable that, by its mere natural movement, by its spontaneous development, the same language should, in the same time, have reached, in neighbouring provinces, stages of decay so unequal as a comparison between the orthography of Girnar and, for example, that of Khālsi would suggest. The views which I have put forward explain this anomaly. For inadmissible inequalities of phonetic development they substitute the very simple notion of different orthographic systems in parallel use in different regions. If, as everything tends to shew, the epoch to which our inscriptions belonged was still, so far as regards the art of writing in India, a period of feeling the way and of uncertainty, if it is anterior to the regularisation or at least to the general expansion of the Sanskrit orthography and to the codification of the literary Prākṛits, the parallel existence of these divergent imperfectly established systems is easily explained. I shall shortly indicate what circumstances seem to have conduced to favour their geographical distribution in the manner to which witness is borne by the evidence of our monuments. These circumstances equally concern the distribution of the dialectic differences properly so called.

(To be continued.)

BHADRABĀHU, CHANDRAGUPTA, AND SRAVANA-BELGOLA.

BY J. F. FLEET, B.O.C.S., M.B.A.S., C.I.E.

In the first fifteen pages of the Introduction to his *Inscriptions at Sravana-Belgola* (published in 1889), Mr. Rice has arrived at the conclusions, that the settlement of the Jains at that place was brought about by the last of the *Śruta-Kēvalins*, Bhadrabāhu, and that this person died there, tended in his last moments by the Maurya king Chandragupta, — the Sandrokottos of the Greek historians, — the grandfather of Aśoka. These conclusions, if they could be accepted as correct, would possess considerable interest. And it is worth while, therefore, to examine the grounds upon which they are based.

It is clear that there are local traditions, of some antiquity, connecting the names Bhadrabāhu and Chandragupta with Sravana-Belgola. Thus : — Of the two hills at 'Sravana-Belgola, the smaller one, Chandragiri, is said to derive its appellation from the fact that Chandragupta was the name of the first of the saints who lived and performed penance there (*Intro.* p. 1). On this hill there is a cave which is known as the cave of Bhadrabāhusvāmin; and also a shrine which is called the Chandragupta-basti (*ibid.* p. 2, and map). Two inscriptions, said to be of the ninth century, found near the Gautama-kshētra of the river Kāvēri at Seringapatam, speak of the hill at Sravana-Belgola as having its summit marked by the impress of the feet of Bhadrabāhu and the Munipati Chandragupta (*ibid.* p. 2, note 6). At Sravana-Belgola itself, inscription No. 17, of about the seventh century A. D., mentions "the pair Bhadrabāhu, together with the Munindra Chandragupta." And inscription No. 71, of considerably later date, refers to worship being done to the foot-prints of Bhadrabāhu.

So far, we stand on safe ground, in respect of the names of a Bhadrabāhu and a Chandragupta; provided that we only bear in mind that, as yet, we have nothing to enable us to identify any particular Bhadrabāhu and any particular Chandragupta.

We turn next to inscriptions at Sravana-Belgola, which undoubtedly mention Bhadrabāhu, the last of the *Śruta-Kēvalins*. No. 40, of A.D. 1163, speaks of "Gautama" [the first of the *Kēvalins*], "in whose line arose "Bhadrabāhu, the last among the *Śruta-Kēvalins*; his disciple was Chandragupta, whose "glory was such that his own *gana* of *Munis* was worshipped by the forest-deities :"¹ and then, after a break, it takes up a line of succession, placed in the lineage (*unraya*) of Chandragupta, beginning with the Munīśvara Koṇḍakunda,² whose original name was Padmanandin. No. 54, of A. D. 1128, again mentions Gautama, the *Śruta-Kēvalin*, Bhadrabāhu (apparently the *Śruta-Kēvalin* of that name), and Chandragupta, "who, by being his disciple, acquired such merit as to be served for a long time by the forest-deities;" and then, like the preceding, after a break, it takes up the succession beginning with Koṇḍakunda. No. 105, of A. D. 1398, dealing similarly with the succession from Koṇḍakunda, enumerates, before him, a number of teachers, in respect of whom, for present purposes, it is only necessary to say that the *Kēvalin* Gautama, and five *Śruta-Kēvalins*, ending with Bhadrabāhu, are mentioned, but the name of Chandragupta does not occur at all. And No. 108, of A. D. 1433, mentions Gautama; in his line, the Yatindra Bhadrabāhu, the last of the *Śruta-Kēvalins*; his disciple, Chandragupta; and, in the line of the latter, the Munindra Koṇḍakunda, whose succession is then continued, as in the other records.

¹ It may be mentioned, in connection with an altogether different matter of some interest, that, in the further succession of disciples, this inscription mentions one whose original name was Dēvanandin; who was called Jinendra-
laddhi, on account of his great learning; who was called Pājyapāda, because his feet were worshipped by gods; and who composed the *Jainendra*-grammar.

² I give this name as it stands in Mr. Rice's texts, — Koṇḍakunda, in Nos. 40, 54, and 105, and Kuṇḍakunda in No. 108. The variation in the vowel of the first syllable is not material. There is a question as to the proper consonants in the second and fourth syllables. For several variants of the name, see Dr. Hultzsch's *South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. I. p. 153, note 2. In the *paṭiśāli* of the *Sarasvatī-Gachchha*, it appears as Kundakunda (*ante*, Vol. XX. pp. 351, 356).

These inscriptions undoubtedly mention Bhadrabāhu, the last of the *Śruta-Kēvalins*, and allot to him a disciple named Chandragupta. And all that we have to note here, is, that, except through the connected mention of a Chandragupta, they afford no grounds for identifying him with the Bhadrabāhu of the inscriptions quoted in the last paragraph but two above; that they furnish no reasons for asserting that the *Śruta-Kēvalin* Bhadrabāhu ever visited Śravaṇa-Belgoḷa, or even came to Southern India at all; and that they give no indications of Chandragupta having been anything but an ordinary Jain teacher.

And now we come to the actual reasons that led Mr. Rice to assert the alleged facts which, in the interests of plain and reliable history, it is desirable either to substantiate or to disprove. They are to be found, partly in a compendium of Jain history called the *Rājavalīkathe*, and partly in Mr. Rice's rendering of another inscription at Śravaṇa-Belgoḷa, No. 1 in his book.

The essence of what the *Rājavalīkathe* tells us is this (*loc. cit.* pp. 3-6): — "The Bhadrabāhu who came to be the last of the *Śruta-Kēvalins*, was a Brāhmaṇ's son, and was born at Kōṭikapura in Puṇḍravardhana. He interpreted sixteen dreams of Chandragupta, the king of Pāṭaliputra; the last of which indicated twelve years of dearth and famine. On the commencement of the famine, Chandragupta abdicated in favour of his son Siṃhasēna, and, taking initiation in the Jain faith, joined himself to Bhadrabāhu. Bhadrabāhu, having collected a body of twelve thousand disciples, migrated to the south, and came to a hill in the Karnāṭaka country. There he perceived that his end was approaching; and so, giving *upadēśa* to Viśākhāchārya, he committed all the disciples to his care, and sent them on to the Chōḷa and Pāṇḍya countries. He himself remained on the hill, and died in a cave there, tended only by Chandragupta, who performed the funeral rites, and abode there, worshipping the foot-prints of the deceased saint. After a time, Siṃhasēna's son, Bhāskara, came to the place, and did obeisance to Chandragupta, and built the city of Belgoḷa near the hill. And eventually, Chandragupta himself died there."

In connection with this account, — the value of which most people will be able to appreciate for themselves, — it is sufficient to point out two things. One is, that, whatever may be the sources on which it is based, this Jain compendium is a composition of the present century (*loc. cit.* p. 3). And the other is that, by a further extract from the same work, we learn (*ibid.* p. 9) that the Chandragupta in question was not the well-known grandfather of Aśōka, — the Sandroktos of the Greeks, — at all, but a son, otherwise quite unknown, of Aśōka's son Kunāla. Mr. Rice himself noticed this little difficulty, and got round it by suggesting (*ibid.* p. 10) that 'the introduction of two Chandraguptas seems to be due to some confusion in the traditions, and is an unnecessary variation, perhaps intended to conceal the defection of Aśōka (from Jainism to the Buddhist faith).' But, by such a process as this, — accepting as reliable an account that is perfectly valueless for historical purposes, and then directly perverting its statement, on a point of leading importance, by deliberately substituting a man's grandfather in the place of his grandson, — almost anything whatever in the way of imaginary history might be evolved.

It is unnecessary to follow Mr. Rice through the process by which, using what seems to be an actual fact, *viz.* that Bhadrabāhu, the last of the *Śruta-Kēvalins*, was a contemporary of the great Chandragupta, he arrived (*loc. cit.* pp. 12, 14) at about B. C. 297 for the date of the events recorded, on his interpretation, in the inscription that still remains to be considered; or through the steps by which he established a connection of the real Chandragupta with Southern India through the Early Guptas, the Mauryas of the Konkan, and the Gatta chieftains of the Kanarese country (*ibid.* pp. 10-14). We will turn now to the inscription itself.

The real purport of the inscription, No. 1 in the Śravaṇa-Belgoḷa volume. 's

follows: — "After the time when (the Jain *Tīrthaṅkara*) Mahāvīra attained *parinirvāṇa*, there was a certain Bhadrabāhusvāmin, who belonged to a lineage that had been made illustrious "by a succession of great saints who came in continuous order from the venerable Paramarshi Gautama, and his disciple Lohārya, and Jambu, Vishṇudēva, Aparājita, Gōvardhana, Bhadrabāhu, Viśākha, Prōsthila, Kṛittikārya,³ Jayanāman, Siddhīrtha, Dhṛitishēṇa, Buddhila, and "other *Gurus*. At Ujjayini, the Bhadrabāhusvāmin, thus introduced, mastered the science of "prognostication, became a knower of the past, the present, and the future, and announced a "period of distress that would last for twelve years; and the entire *saṅgha* set out from the "north and migrated to the south, and, by the directions of the saint, came to a country "containing many hundreds of villages, and rich in people, wealth, gold, grain, cows, buffaloes, "and goats. Then, on the mountain Kaṭavapra,⁴ the *Āchārya* Prabhāchandra, perceiving "that the end of his life was very near, and being much afraid of journeying any further, "dismissed the whole *saṅgha*, with the exception of one unnamed disciple, and engaged in "*saṁnyāsa* until he died."

In interpreting this record, Mr. Rice made two important mistakes. (1) He took the Bhadrabāhusvāmin who announced the period of distress, to be identical with Bhadrabāhu I., the *Sruta-Kēvalin*, who is mentioned in his proper place between Gōvardhana and Viśākha. But, according to the inscription itself, seven of the *Dvā-Pūrvins*, and after them a break of unspecified duration, intervened between the two Bhadrabāhus, — in perfect accordance with the lists of Northern India. And (2), in consequence of a mislection in line 6, he translated the inscription as meaning that the *Āchārya* who died at Kaṭavapra, was Bhadrabāhusvāmin himself, *i. e.*, as the result of his identification, Bhadrabāhu I., the *Sruta-Kēvalin*, and that the disciple who tended him was Prabhāchandra; to which he attached a note that Prabhāchandra was explained to him as the clerical name assumed by Chandragupta.⁵ But all this is distinctly not the case; the reading, in line 6, is, — not *āchāryyaḥ Prabhāchandrēn=ām=āvanitala°*, "the *Āchārya*, with⁶ Prabhāchandra also, [dismissed the *saṅgha*, and engaged in *saṁnyāsa* till he died]," — but *āchāryyaḥ Prabhāchandrō nām=āvanitala°*, "the *Āchārya*, namely Prabhāchandra, [dismissed the *saṅgha* and engaged in *saṁnyāsa* till he died]."

In short, so far from recording that the *Sruta-Kēvalin* Bhadrabāhu died at Sravana Belgola, tended by a disciple named Prabhāchandra, who might be assumed to be king Chandragupta of Pāṭaliputra, the inscription simply states that an *Āchārya* named Prabhāchandra died there, during or shortly after a migration of the Jain community to the south, which was caused by an announcement of famine made, at Ujjain, by a certain Bhadrabāhusvāmin who came after an interval of unspecified duration, — but plainly a long one, — after the *Sruta-Kēvalin* Bhadrabāhu. And thus the only possible substantial foundation for the fabric reared up by Mr. Rice ceases entirely to exist.

We may now proceed to examine the real historical bearings of this inscription. It

³ Mr. Rice gives "Kshatrikārya." I do not overlook the fact that the name occurs as "Kshatriya" in No. 105 in Mr. Rice's book, and in the extract from the *Māghanandi-Srāvakaśāstra* given *ante*, Vol. XII. p. 22, and as "Khattiya," explained by "Kshatriya," in the *paṭṭavali* of the *Sarasvatī-Gachchha* (*ante*, Vol. XX. p. 348). But Mr. Rice's lithograph distinctly has the name that I give. — Since writing these remarks, I have seen impressions of the inscription, which I owe to the kindness of Dr. Hultzsch. They shew that the name really is Kṛittikārya.

⁴ The original says, "on this mountain named Kaṭavapra"; *i. e.* on the hill on which the inscription is engraved; *i. e.* on Chandragiri itself.

⁵ See also *Introd.* pp. 6, 7, where, however, he says only that, "according to No. 1," *i. e.* the present inscription, Chandragupta "appears" to have taken the name of Prabhāchandra on retiring from the world, in conformity with custom.

⁶ The passage was supposed to include the word *amā*, in the sense of *saha*. — The inscription was first brought to notice by Mr. Rice in 1871, in this *Journal*, Vol. III., p. 153 (see also *Mysore Inscriptions*, pp. lxxxvi., lxxxvii., 302); and the first extract from the *Rājavalīkātne* was also given. But Mr. Rice did not then find the name Prabhāchandra in the inscription. And in respect of the extract from the *Rājavalīkātne*, he then wrote — "This is a strange story. How much of it may be accepted as historical is not easy to say."

is not dated. But the lithographic Plate which is given by Mr. Rice, shews that the engraving of it is to be allotted to **approximately the seventh century A. D.**: it may possibly be a trifle earlier; and equally, it may possibly be somewhat later.⁷ And, interpreting the record in the customary manner, *viz.* as referring to an event almost exactly synchronous with the engraving of it, we can only take it as commemorating the death of a Jain teacher named **Prabhāchandra**, in or very near to the period A.D. 600 to 700. Who this **Prabhāchandra** was, I am not at present able to say. But he cannot be **Prabhāchandra I.** of the *paṭṭāvalī* of the *Sarasvatī-Gachchha* (*ante*, Vol. XX. p. 351), unless the chronological details of that record, — according to which **Prabhāchandra I.**, became pontiff in A. D. 396, — are open to very considerable rectification. And I should think that he must be a different person, for whose identification we have to look to southern records not as yet available.

As regards **Bhadrabāhusvāmin**, all that should have been of necessity plain at the time when Mr. Rice dealt finally with this inscription, is, that he is not the *Śruta-Kēvalin* **Bhadrabāhu**. Now that Dr. Hoernle has published the *paṭṭāvalī* of the *Sarasvatī-Gachchha*, he is easily capable of identification. He is undoubtedly **Bhadrabāhu II.**, the last but one of the **Minor-Aṅgins** who is represented as becoming pontiff in B. C. 53 (*ante*, Vol. XX. pp. 349-51.)

The same *paṭṭāvalī* enables us to locate properly the **Chandragupta** of the *Śravaṇa-Belgola* traditions and inscriptions. Such of them as make him a disciple of the *Śruta-Kēvalin* **Bhadrabāhu**, are plainly mistaken. He is evidently **Guptigupta**, the disciple of **Bhadrabāhu II.**, — otherwise named **Arhadbalin** and **Viśākhachārya**, — who, according to the same record, became pontiff in B. C. 31 (*ante*, Vol. XX. pp. 350, 351). And this brings us to a point in which the local traditions are possibly more correct than the northern records. The *paṭṭāvalī* in question tells us that one of **Guptigupta's** disciples, **Māghanandin**, established the **Nandi-Saṃgha** or **Balātkāra-Gaṇa**, as a division of the *Mūla-Saṃgha* itself. Both names of the *gaṇa*, as well as that of the *Mūla-Saṃgha*, are of frequent occurrence, in connection with teachers belonging to it, in inscriptions in the Kanarese country; where, however, the *gaṇa* is perhaps mentioned most often as the **Balātkāra-Gaṇa**. This appellation for it is attributed by Dr. Hoernle to **Guptigupta's** name of **Arhadbalin**. A *gaṇa* of his own is allotted to **Chandragupta**, i. e. to **Guptigupta**, by inscription No. 40 at *Śravaṇa-Belgola* (see the words quoted from it, on page 156 above), which ultimately deals with the *Dēśī-Gaṇa* as a division of the **Nandi-Gaṇa** in the *Mūla-Saṃgha*, placing it in the lineage (*anvaya*) of **Koṇḍakunda**, just as the lineage of the latter is placed in the lineage of **Chandragupta**, i. e. of **Guptigupta**. And the fact that the inscription with which we have been dealing, and others on the **Chandragiri** hill which similarly record the deaths of Jain ascetics, lie in such a position that they have to be read with the face directed towards the front of the so-called **Chandragupta-basti**, indicates plainly that some peculiar sanctity or reverence attached to the person commemorated by that shrine. There can be little doubt that the ascetics in question belonged to the same sect with that person; that he was the traditional founder of the sect; and that the tradition at *Śravaṇa-Belgola* was that the **Balātkāra-Gaṇa** was really founded by the **Chandragupta** of the inscriptions, i. e. by **Guptigupta**, the disciple of **Bhadrabāhu II.**⁸

⁷ While recognising, approximately, the period to which the characters really belong, Mr. Rice (*loc. cit.* p. 15) arrived at the conclusion that, "if this interesting inscription did not precede the Christian era, it unquestionably belongs to the earliest part of that era and is certainly not later than about 400 A.D." But there are no substantial grounds for this view, which depends chiefly upon Mr. Rice's acceptance as genuine, of the spurious Western *Gaṇa* grants. Unfortunately, much of what would otherwise be valuable work by him, is always vitiated in the same way.

⁸ In connection with a division of the **Nandi-Saṃgha**, "the body of saints of **Guptigupta**" is mentioned in the *Kaḍab* grant, which purports to be dated in *Śaka-Saṃvat* 785 (*ante*, Vol. XII. p. 11). And inscription No. 105 in Mr. Rice's book, dated *Śaka-Saṃvat* 1320, speaks of **Arhadbalin**, apparently as establishing a four-fold division of the *saṃgha*.

The migration to the south, whether it really started from Ujjain, or from elsewhere, may well be a historical fact.⁹ It may be open to argument, whether the inscription intends to imply that it was led by Bhadrabāhu II. But at any rate this is not distinctly asserted. And I think that the contrary is indicated, (1) by the description of Bhadrabāhu as “a knower of the past, the present, and the future (*brahmalāya-darśin*),” which rather points to his predicting a future period of distress, than to his simply announcing the commencement of immediately impending distress; and (2) by the statement that the rich land at which the *saṃgha* arrived was reached “by the directions of the saint (*ārshēna* = *ṛishi-vachanēna*),” which points to instructions given at the time of predicting the distress, — or at any rate to advice given to people who were leaving him, — rather than to personal guidance. On the other hand, the inscription, whether correctly or not, does make the migration contemporaneous with Prabhāchandra; for it says that, at the mountain Kaṭavapra, he perceived that the end of his life was very near and became “much afraid of travelling any further (*adhvanaḥ su-chakītaḥ*),” and so dismissed the *saṃgha* and remained there till he died. If, then, the record does mean to imply that Bhadrabāhu II. led the migration, or even that it took place in his time, it is wrong, either in that respect, or in placing the death of Prabhāchandra during the migration; because of the intervention of several centuries at least¹⁰ between the period of Bhadrabāhu II. and the death of Prabhāchandra as determined, with close approximation, by the palæography of the record.

FOLKLORE IN WESTERN INDIA.

BY PUTLIBAI D. H. WADIA.

No. 17. *The Princess Malika-Jarika.*

There was once a rich old merchant who had seven sons. One day he called them to him and said : — “My sons, it is high time now that you were married and settled in life, for I am growing older every day, and am anxious to distribute my wealth among you before death calls me away from this world.”

The young men were nothing loath to do as their father desired, and jumped at his proposal, but the old man added : — “Not so fast, my boys, there is a certain condition to be fulfilled, and a certain test to be applied to you, before you come by your partners in life and obtain possession of my wealth. So listen attentively to what I say.”

“On a certain day, which we shall appoint, after consulting the astrologers, you all are to go with your bows and arrows to an open *maidān* outside the city, where each one of you is to shoot an arrow from his bow in whatever direction he likes best, and I shall trust to the hand of fate to guide it to the feet of the fortunate lady, who is destined to be the bride of the owner of that arrow.”

“Agreed,” said the brothers, who were all eager both to display their skill in archery, as well as to come by their wives in such a romantic fashion. So they soon set about making preparations for that eventful occasion.

When the day fixed by their father, with the aid of his astrologers came round, the seven young men and their father, accompanied by a number of their friends and relatives, went to the appointed place, and when everything was ready and the signal given, the seven brothers,

⁹ It appears to be mentioned also in the *Upasarga kēvaligaja-kāṭhe*; see *ante*, Vol. XII. p. 89, — “the whole assemblage of the saints having come by the region of the south, and having arrived at the tomb of the venerable one, &c.”

¹⁰ I assume that the *pañjikā* of the Sarasvatī-Gachchha is at least approximately correct in respect of the date which it gives for Bhadrabāhu II.

who had taken care to put their own particular marks on their arrows, shot them in seven different directions.

After a long interval of anxious waiting, the arrows were one by one recovered and brought back to their owners, along with tokens from the fair ladies at whose feet chance or fate had guided them; all except that of the merchant's youngest son. Long and vigorous was the search made for it not only all that day, but for many and many a day following, but to no purpose. The arrow had flown over hill and valley and over river and ocean, for no trace of it could be found over the entire country.

At last, when no stone had been left unturned, and all hope of finding the lost arrow was abandoned, the old man taunted his son about his ill-luck in not being able to procure himself a partner in life, and expressed his belief that he must be a very wicked fellow thus to have incurred the displeasure of God. The poor youth felt so humiliated at this that he quitted the land of his birth in despair, and became a wanderer in distant countries; whilst his father celebrated the nuptials of his six sons with great pomp and rejoicings, and, regardless of his youngest son's claims, distributed his large wealth equally amongst them. Our hero roamed about for days and months from one place to another in search of his lost arrow, but in vain, till at last he became a mere aimless and homeless wanderer, for whom life could have no zest or charm.

One day, however, as he was thus roaming through a large forest in an unknown country, his eye chanced to fall upon a large iron ring fixed to what appeared to be a door, and what was his joy to find, in close proximity to the ring, his own long-lost arrow entangled amongst some thorns and brambles that grew there! Naturally the youth's first impulse was to draw out the arrow from its place; but he soon changed his mind, reflecting that perhaps it marked the spot where he ought to look for his bride. So he took hold of the ring and pulled at it with all his might, and to his great joy the door yielded and revealed to his astonished gaze a dark and narrow passage, which evidently led to some subterraneous abode.

Without any delay our hero boldly entered this passage, and soon found himself sliding downwards and downwards, as if impelled by some unknown power within. When he at last recovered the use of his legs, he found himself in the midst of a beautiful garden, so tastefully laid out and so well stocked with beautiful fruits and flowers of a strange kind, that he was for a while quite entranced, and felt certain that he could be nowhere but in fairy-land, for such things could not belong to the world he had lived in. He looked about him to see if he could find any traces of the inhabitants of that strange and most picturesque place, but nothing met his eye, far and near, save fruits and flowers, and butterflies and birds of rare plumage, while the only other living being he noticed there, was a solitary she-monkey, that was swinging herself to and fro amongst the branches of the trees.

As he walked about in the garden, however, our hero saw in one part of it, a large and very beautiful palace, and on entering it, found it full of gold and silver jewels. Every piece of furniture in that noble edifice was made either of one of these metals or the other, and was, moreover, studded with diamonds and rubies. But go where he would in it, he could find no evidence of any living being, human or otherwise. As he was sitting, however, in one of the halls of this wonderful palace, he perceived to his great surprise, that a sumptuous feast was being spread before him by invisible hands, while a voice whispered in his ear — "Get up, take thy bath, and partake of these good things." He instantly turned round and looked about to find who it was that had spoken to him, but could see no one. So he got up, and, doing as he was bid, sat down to the repast, and did ample justice to the rich viands that were placed before him, having had no food all that day. By and by, the she-monkey he had observed in the garden came in also, and began skipping about from room to room and making herself quite at home, just as if she were sole mistress of the palace.

Our hero remained in this strange place for several days, and had nothing to do, but to eat and drink and enjoy himself. But at last he got tired of the monotony of his situation, for, besides the monkey, he himself was the only living thing in that palace, and she, he thought, was no company for a young man, notwithstanding that every now and then she went and sat by his side, looked wistfully into his face, and asked him by signs to follow her all throughout the palace and the garden, and to look at the wonderful things it contained. One day, therefore, he secretly ran up the passage, through which he had entered the garden, and lifting up the massive iron door made his way back to his father's country.

When at last after a long and toilsome journey the long-forgotten wanderer reached home, he received but a cold welcome from his father and brothers, and they all laughed at him, when he related to them where and how he had found his lost arrow. So he thought it prudent not to say anything about the wonderful palace or the she-monkey just then, and kept his own counsel. The six brothers were all happy with their six wives, who were all clever and beautiful, and the old man, their father, extolled the virtues of his daughters-in-law to the skies, and exultingly showed his son the nice and valuable presents the ladies had brought specially for himself. Amongst them were some exquisitely embroidered little carpets worked by the ladies themselves, which the old man admired most of all, though our hero eyed them with contempt, as he compared them to the rare specimens of workmanship which he had seen in the underground palace.

Not desiring under these circumstances to prolong his stay with his father, our hero one day quietly left his home, and speedily returned to the subterraneous palace, to which, it need not be mentioned, some strange power was constantly attracting him. When he reached it the she-monkey again went skipping up to him, and played and frisked about him with great glee.

But our hero's heart was sad to think that he should have only a she-monkey to welcome him in a place, which he felt was to him like a home, and one where he most loved to go, and he began to look at the unsightly animal with tears in his eyes. She seemed, however, to understand what he felt, for going up to him she commenced to stroke his head and to shampoo his feet. But our hero turned away from her in disgust, and said in a rage, "Begone, thou ugly creature, I don't want thee to come so near me!"

"Hold thy tongue," replied the monkey, all of a sudden speaking like a human being, "I only do as I am bid. If thou utterest one unkind word to me thou shalt have to rue it before long."

The poor young man was non-plussed at this, and said nothing, but his heart grew sad to think in what an unenviable position he had been placed. "My arrow," he contemplated, "came all the way over to the gate leading to this strange place, in which the only living being I can see is this monkey, and since my arrow was destined to indicate the place, where I was to find my bride, am I to content myself with believing that this she-monkey is my lady-love and this fairy place her bower?" As this thought struck him tears began to gush forth from his eyes and trickled down his cheeks. The she-monkey observing this, looked very much distressed, and thus addressed him words of sympathy and comfort, "Do not lose heart and give way like that, my friend; only confide in me and tell me the cause of thy grief, and I shall do my best to help thee."

But our hero had not the heart to tell her the real cause of his sorrow; so he said: — "I am sorry I appear unhappy in a place, where no pains are spared to make me comfortable, but I am grieved, when I think how I am taunted by my father and laughed at by my brothers at every turn, owing to my not having as yet been able to secure a wife for myself. The last time I visited my father he showed me some rich and artistically embroidered carpets, which he said had been worked for him specially by his six daughters-in-law, and

cast the cruel fact again in my teeth, that I had not as yet been blessed with a wife, much less with a clever one."

"Is that all?" cried the monkey. "I doubt whether they can show anything like the carpets and other beautiful things you see in this palace."

"Certainly not!" replied the youth: "nobody in my country has ever seen anything half so beautiful and precious; but my only regret is that not one of all these things can I present to my father as the handiwork of my own bride."

"Oh! yes, you can," cried the monkey, picking out seven rich and beautiful carpets all studded with diamonds and rubies, out of a heap lying in one of the rooms, "take these to your father, and lay them at his feet as the results of the unaided efforts of your future bride."

The youth was quite taken aback at these words. What could she mean by saying that the carpets had been worked by his future bride? Could it be that they had been worked by herself? No, the embroidery was too fine and tasteful to be done by a monkey! Surely there must be some beautiful fairy hidden away somewhere, at whose bidding the she-monkey was thrusting her odious presence upon him! However, he thought it wise to take the monkey's advice, and bidding her adieu, once more started back to his native country with the carpets and many other precious and beautiful articles besides.

As was to be expected, the carpets were greatly admired by each and all of his relatives, and everyone who saw them desired eagerly to behold the fair lady, whose clever fingers had worked such superb specimens of embroidery. Our hero, instead of being elated at this, was downcast and dejected, for he could not, for the life of him, think how he was to produce his future bride before his father and his relatives, since he himself had not as yet had the pleasure of seeing her. So he said nothing more about the affair to them, and soon after quietly turned his back once more on the land of his birth, making a mental resolve at the same time never to return home without finding a bride worthy of himself.

When he reached the underground palace he found the she-monkey in her usual place among the trees, and she began to question him as to how he had been received by his father this time.

Our hero, however, was too much absorbed in thinking of the fair lady, who he imagined had worked the carpets, to give heed to the monkey's questions. He was wondering when it was destined that he should see her, when a strange voice thus whispered to him: "If thou wouldst see her at all, swear to forget thy parents, thy relations, and thy country, and to renounce for ever all thoughts of ever returning to them, and promise to stay here for weal or for woe."

The youth was surprised at this, but he nevertheless did as he was bid, and in the course of a few days his eye began to see in the palace living beings such as he had never seen there before. He could see male and female slaves flitting about from one room to another, as they did the household work, he could see gardeners tending the flowers and shrubs, and fair ladies waiting upon the she-monkey, who, to his despair, still appeared to be the mistress of all. His dislike, however, for the company of this creature began to wear off by degrees, and he tried to make himself comfortable, since some mystic power appeared to tempt him to stay in that place.

A good many days passed away in this manner, when our hero one day again heard a voice that said to him: — "If thou wouldst like to wed thy bride, thou art at liberty to go and bring thy father and all thy kinsfolk to this place, when thy nuptials will be celebrated with great splendour in their presence."

"But must I not ask to see my bride first?" cried the youth in answer. "No, that cannot be!" was the reply. "Thou must place implicit confidence in us, and in return we promise that thy parents and thyself shall behold as fair a princess as ever was seen by mortal eyes, but

that will be only when all thy kinsfolk have assembled here to take part in the wedding ceremony, and not before."

The youth was fain to put faith in these promises, so tempting were they. So he started off for his native country, and on arriving there, besought his father and brothers to go with him to the underground palace, and witness his nuptials with the fair worker of those beautiful carpets. Accordingly, the old man and his sons sent round invitations to all their friends and relatives, and, fixing an auspicious day, they all set out to go, where the youth led them. The latter in his turn tried to look cheerful and composed in their presence, but at heart he was ill at ease, for he was not yet quite sure whether the bride he was going to wed would not after all turn out to be the she-monkey herself, and he shuddered to think what would be his discomfiture in such a case.

After a long and toilsome journey the whole cavalcade of friends and relatives arrived at the door leading to the narrow passage, and on passing through it they all found themselves in that wonderfully laid-out garden. When they had gone about for some time and admired the beautiful fruits and flowers, with which the trees were laden, our hero took them into the palace, where things still more beautiful greeted their sight. But here, as well as in the garden, they were surprised not to meet with any human beings, when all of a sudden they heard a voice that bade them welcome, and told them to wash themselves and partake of the feast that was being spread out for them in one of the large rooms.

As the guests were all very hungry they needed no second bidding, but sat themselves down and began to partake heartily of the sumptuous banquet provided for them by some unseen agency. While they were thus enjoying themselves a voice again addressed them thus: — "My guests, you are welcome to this feast. Eat and drink to your hearts' content, and when you have done, I request each of you to carry away the silver tray and the golden cup that has been placed before you to take your meals from, and to keep them as souvenirs of the memorable wedding of the fairy-princess Malika-jarika with a human being."

On hearing these words all the guests began to look in different directions in the hope of seeing the fairy-bride, but no Malika-Jarika greeted their sight, nor any living being, save the hideous she-monkey, who was all this while moving about here and there with the air of an hostess, and seemed to be in the best of spirits, to the great consternation of our hero, who could not help associating her presence with the thought that she must be the Princess Malika-Jarika herself, who was going to wed him! His doubts, however, were soon laid at rest, for when the feast was nearly over, the she-monkey suddenly drew off from her person, what appeared like a coil or skin, and lo! there stood before the astonished gaze of all a very beautiful fairy, such as they had never even dreamed of!

This lovely creature immediately went up to our hero and joyfully exclaimed: — "Behold in me the fairy-princess, to whose abode fate led thy steps. My name is the Princess Malika-Jarika, and I am sole mistress of this beautiful palace and of all the land for miles around. I am ready and willing to marry thee, but on one condition, namely, that thou takest charge of, and guardest as thy own life, this coil or skin that I have just cast off, for know that, as long as it remains intact, so long only shall I go about in this my fairy form." The young man eagerly took the coil from her hands, and, carefully folding it, put it into a box, and locked it up for safety in one of the rooms of the palace.

The wedding ceremony was soon after gone through amidst great rejoicings, and each and all congratulated our hero on his having been blessed with such a very rich and beautiful wife. The six brothers of the fortunate youth, however, felt jealous of him, and could not bear to see him so happy. So they went up to him while the fairy was away, and with an air of the greatest concern, expressed to him their fears regarding the coil, and told him to beware lest his bride should take it into her head to put it on again, and resume the hideous shape of a monkey. His father and his relatives, too, when they heard this, shared the same fears, and

they all joined in persuading the unsuspecting youth to destroy the coil. For some time he was firm, but at last, being unable to withstand the joint advice and entreaties of so many, he **threw the coil into the fire!** No sooner, however, did the flames touch it, than the fairy, who was at a distance, uttered a loud and piteous scream, came running up, and speedily thrusting her hand into the fire, drew out the burning coil, and as hurriedly put it on!

All this happened in the twinkling of an eye, and the merchant and his sons and their guests suddenly found the scene around them transformed into a dense and dark forest, all traces of the fairy-palace and the garden having vanished before them. Our hero was beside himself with rage and grief at this, and swore never to return home, until he had found his beloved bride again. So, leaving him to indulge his grief in that lonely forest, his father and the rest wended their way homewards.

When they were all gone the youth again saw the she-monkey jumping from tree to tree, and uttering piteous screams. So he went up to her and besought her to forgive him, and to receive him back into her favour. But she wept bitterly, and said, "No, no, that is not in my power to do; still, if thy repentance is sincere, leave me for the present, and let us hope some day to meet again." With these words she vanished from his sight, and there was nothing but darkness around. Just then a voice was heard to say, "If ever again you seek the fairy-princess, let this be your watchword: — 'What about that affair?'" "Very well," muttered the youth thankfully, "I'll remember it to the end of my days," and then, in obedience to the will of the she-monkey, he made his way out of the forest.

For many and many a month afterwards the unhappy youth wandered aimlessly about from country to country, for he hardly knew in what particular direction to turn, in order to go in search of his lost bride. At last, being fatigued both in mind and body, he sank down under the shade of a large tree, and felt that he was dying.

As to the fairy-princess, having had the misfortune to touch a human being, the poor spirit had lost caste, and was no longer the light ærial being that all fairies are; moreover, she had contracted the odour of mortals by coming into contact with them, and the fairies would not let her mix with them, until she had gone through a severe form of purification. This was nothing less than throwing seven hundred pails of water over her body each morning, and remaining among the trees the rest of the day, so that she might be dried in the sun and cleansed of all impurities. This made the poor fairy very unhappy, and she passed her days in great sorrow.

Meanwhile our hero, whom we had left tired and worn-out under a tree, remained there for some days, being unable to proceed any further. One day he heard a strange noise overhead, and looking up, saw that a **very large serpent** had climbed up the tree and **was going to devour the young ones of an eagle**, which had its nest among the branches. So he went up the tree as fast as his worn-out limbs allowed and succeeded in killing the serpent before it could do any injury to the young eagles. Just then both the parent birds came up and were **deeply grateful** to the brave young man for having saved the lives of their little ones, and asked him to command their services in any way he wished. But the youth said to them with a sad smile: — "No, friends, it is not in your power to help me, since my only object in life is to discover the fairy-princess *Mālika-Jarika*, and I am firmly resolved never to taste the sweets of life until I have found her."

"Oh! is that all you want?" exclaimed the male bird, "then it is easy enough. I know the abodes of all the fairies; so you have only to ride upon my back and I shall fly with you to the country of the *jins* and fairies in no time."

These words of the eagle gave new life to the disabled youth, and he fearlessly mounted the large bird's back, and in a few hours arrived at the country of the *jins*. At parting the good old eagle gave the youth a sweet sounding fife, and said: — "By simply

blowing into this fife you will be able to produce music so sweet that all the fairies and *jins* will gather round you to hear it. The king of the *jins* will be so pleased with your performance, that he will offer to bestow upon you whatever you may ask for, on condition that you consent to stay with him for ever. But remember that you are not on any account to mention the name of the fairy-princess, or to utter the watchword that has been given to you, or your head will pay the penalty of your indiscretion. However much the king may entreat you to accept some present from him, you must only say that you require nothing and have to go back the next morning.

He will then bring you gold and silver and rare jewels and also the most beautiful fairies you ever saw, but you must still remain firm and inflexible. Then at last he will bring forth to you some of the ugliest women in his kingdom, amongst whom will be one strikingly hideous in appearance, whom you will know by her coal-black complexion and her large projecting teeth. This woman you are to express your willingness to have, for underneath that dark skin and ugly features will be found hidden the beautiful princess, whom you are so anxious to meet.

The youth thanked the eagle and promised to remember all his instructions, when the good bird added: "Let us part now, but, before we do so, let me give you this feather of mine. If ever trouble comes over you, hold it before a fire and burn it, and I shall be immediately at your side." And so saying it flew away.

Just then our hero commenced operations. He began to blow into the fife, and although he had no knowledge whatever of music, he produced from it such exquisite melody that, just as the eagle had predicted, there gathered round him a large concourse of *jins* and fairies along with their king and queen, and the former offered to bestow upon him whatever he might wish for, if he only consented to stay with them. Our hero, however, acted his part admirably, and refused everything that was offered him in succession, until at last the ugly women were brought before him. Then only did his eyes begin to sparkle, and he chose from among them the one the eagle had described to him, and she, to his great delight, soon turned out to be his own long-lost bride.

The two young people lived very happily together for some time, and cared for nothing else besides each other's company. But at last the youth felt a longing to return to his native country and see his father. The fairy-princess, too, was willing to go with him, though her father stoutly refused to give them his permission, and they were thinking of stealing away unknown to him, when an unforeseen difficulty arose. How were they, especially our hero, who was only a mortal, to travel through the air, since no land or sea appeared to connect his father's country with fairy-land? In this dilemma the youth bethought him of the eagle, and forthwith burned its feather. The faithful bird speedily obeyed the summons, and without losing any more time, both the young people mounted its back. The good bird flew incessantly, till it placed its precious burden at the feet of the old merchant, now very feeble and living all by himself in the old house, neglected by his six sons, who were fast throwing away the money he had so thoughtlessly given them. The old man's joy knew no bounds at seeing his long-lost son and his beauteous bride once more. He entreated them to stay with him till death called him away, which he thought was very near. Both the young people readily consented to this, and lived with the old man till the last; and after his death returned to fairy-land once more, where they lived very happily for the rest of their lives.

MISCELLANEA.

THE DATE OF THE GRÆCO-BUDDHIST PEDESTAL FROM HASHTNAGAR.

Dr. Bühler has published in the number of this *Journal ante*, Vol. XX., p. 394, an interesting

note on this unique record. He does not seem to have seen M. Senart's remarks on the same subject,² and, I think, it will be interesting to many readers to compare the views of these two scholars.

² *Notes d'Épigraphie Indienne, extrait du Journal Asiatique, III.*, Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, MDCCXCX.

Dr. Bühler, having before him both the facsimile rubbing and the photo-etching, reads the inscription as follows :—

"Sam II C xx xx xx x iv Pôstavadasa masasa di[va] sanmi panh[cha] 5[11*]."

M. Senart, before the publication of the photo-etching, read "... prothavadasa masasa di[vasê] panhamê, 4, 1." He doubted the existence of the symbol for one hundred, and read the remaining figures as 74, not as 84. Dr. Bühler notes that the reading *pothavadasa* is linguistically possible, and would be good Prâkrit.

Both scholars, therefore, are agreed that the month named is the Sanskrit Praushthapada (August—September), and that Sir A. Cunningham was mistaken in reading 'êmborasmasa,' 'intercalary.' That point may be considered as definitely settled.

Now that the photo-etching is available, M. Senart cannot well doubt the presence of the symbol for 'hundred.'³ The date, therefore, is either 274, as read by Sir A. Cunningham and Dr. Bühler, or 284. As to this detail M. Senart observes: "Quant aux années, dont le chiffre est lu 274 par le général, il paraît certain que c'est par 84 qu'il finit (je ne puis faire aucune différence entre le troisième et le quatrième chiffre des dizaines)."

The difference between the third and fourth symbols for the tens (or rather the twenties) does, however, exist, though it is very slight. The fourth symbol is somewhat more slender and less curved than any of the three preceding ones. I prefer, consequently, to accept 274 as the correct reading.

As to the era used, Dr. Bühler considers as very improbable the suggestion that the Saka era may be that referred to. My only reason for making the suggestion was the inferior style of the sculpture. But M. Senart has pointed out that the workmanship of pedestals is generally much inferior to that of statues. The inscription under discussion is on a pedestal adorned with

a relief, and nothing is known of the artistic merits of the statue which stood on the pedestal. Very likely, it was executed in a much better style. I, therefore, give up the suggestion that the Saka era is referred to in the inscription.

M. Senart is a firm believer in the early extinction of the Arian or Kharôshtri alphabet, and remarks that "l'ère de Gondophares est donc seule en cause, parmi celles qui nous sont actuellement connues." The exact date of Gondophares is not known, but he lived somewhere about the middle of the first century B. C. The probable date of the inscription is therefore approximately 284-50 = A. D. 284, or 274-50 = A. D. 224. By a slip of the pen M. Senart gives the date of Gondophares as "environ 50 après J. C."

I have sent to the Asiatic Society of Bengal a fuller notice of M. Senart's paper.

V. A. SMITH.

7th February, 1892.

TAILA II.

The time at which Taila II. restored the Chalukya sovereignty in Western India is fixed as being the Srimukha samvatsara, Saka-Samvat 896 current (A. D. 978-74), by a verse which is given in an inscription at the temple of Viranârâyana at Gadag in the Dhârwad District, and in another, based on the same model, at the temple of Kâlinga at Kâlige in the Têngalî Tâlukâ, Nizam's Dominions; both records belong to the time of Vikramâditya VI.

I gave the verse, as far as it could be restored from the transcriptions given in Sir Walter Elliot's *Carnâtaka-Dêsa Inscriptions*, Vol. I. pp. 370, 415, in this Journal, Vol. XII. p. 270. I am now able to give it in correct form, from an ink-impression of the Gadag stone which I owe to the exertions of Mr. Daso Balwant Bettigeri; and to annex the preceding portion at the beginning of the inscription, the opening part of which is hopelessly unintelligible as it stands in the version given by Sir Walter Elliot's copyist. The whole passage runs as follows :—

TEXT.

Om Svasti Samasta-jagat-prasûtér=bhbha(bbha)gavatô Brahmanâh putrasy=Âtrér=nnêtra-samutpannasya yâminî-kâminî-lâlâma-bhûtasya Sômasy=ânvayê satya-tyâga-sauryy-âdi-guṇa-nilayâh kēvala-nija-dhvajinî-java-kshapita-pratipaksha-kshitîsa-vamśâh śrîmân=asti Châlukya-vamśâh || Â vamśado! ||

Kanda || Śrî-vallabhan=ahita-jaya-

śrî-vallabhan=enisi Vikramâdityamgarh [1*]

Śrî-vadhuv=ol=eseva Bonthâ-

dēvigav=âdam tanûbhavam Taila-nripa ||

³ But, in his recently published work 'Coins of Ancient India' (Quaritch, 1891), Sir A. Cunningham (page 37) refers to the Hashtnagar Inscription as being dated 84 only.

Vṛitta || Modaloḷu kitt¹=ikki Raṭṭar=ppalaruman=adaṭaṁ Muṁjanam komdu dōr-gga-rbbada gurbhim yuddhadoloḷu Paṁchalana taleynnam koṇḍu Chālukya-rāḷy-ā-spadamam kai-koṇḍu nishkaṁṭakam=enisidan=ēkaṁgaḍim Śrīmukh-ābdaṁ modal-āg=irppattu-nālkum barisam=akhiḷa-bhūchakramam Taila-bhūpa ||

TRANSLATION.

Om! Hail! In the lineage of Sōma (the Moon), — the forehead-ornament of the loving woman the night, — who was produced from the eye of Atri, the son of the divine Brahman who was the procreator of the universe, there is the glorious Chālukya race, which is the abode of truth, liberality, heroism, and other virtuous qualities, (and) which has destroyed the races of hostile kings by simply the quickness of its bannered armies. In that race:—

(Verse):— To Vikramāditya (IV.), who was accounted the favourite of fortune (and) the favourite of the goddess of victory over enemies, and to Bonthādēvi who resembled the goddess Śrī, there was born a son, king Taila (II.).

(Metre):— Having first plucked up and destroyed some Raṭṭas; having killed the valiant Muṁja; having, by the terror of the pride of his arm, taken the head of Paṁchala in battle; and having possessed himself of the regal dignity of the Chālukyas, — king Taila, unaided, caused the whole circuit of the earth to be considered free from troubles for twenty-four years, beginning with the year Śrīmukha.

J. F. FLEET.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

THE EVIL EYE.

A.—In Persia.

It is the custom in Persia to keep a wild boar in a stable where valuable horses are kept, in order to keep the evil eye from them. In the same way almost every valuable horse has an amulet strung round his neck, to which may be also attached a boar's tusk, for the same object.

S. J. A. CHURCHILL.

Tehran.

B.—In Bihar.

The evil eye or nazar is very fatal to children and animals. If a man looks steadily at any child or animal, and says or thinks how beautiful it is, it will soon die. A blue thread round the animal or the child's waist will save it. Tiger's claws and old coins are also a great protection.

It is not right to allow others to look on while you are eating, — especially the hungry. The steady gaze of the hungry at a man eating causes indigestion or a disease in the stomach.

You must never put your feet on the table-cloth (*dastarkhān*), nor permit a glass of water to be put on it.

The evil eye cast on food can be averted by setting aside a spoonful of each dish and giving it to birds or to beggars, or simply by muttering a prayer.

SAYYID KHAIRAYAT AHMAD.

Gayā.

SUPERSTITIONS AS TO CROWS IN MADRAS.

The crow is held in high estimation by the Brahmans of Southern India, as the following facts clearly show:—

The Brahmans strictly observe the daily *pūjā* or adoration of Siva. Towards the end of it the principal food prepared for the occasion is placed in front of the god and by means of *mantras* he is invoked in order that he may partake of the same, and for this invocation a handful of the food so presented is taken and kept aside. After the *pūjā* is over, it is put on a tray in the open yard and the crows are invited to eat it. This food is termed the *baliannam*, or the presented food. It is only after the crows have eaten it that the people of the house sit down for their breakfast.

When a crow caws early in the morning in the open yard of the house, or when an unusual noise is heard in the oven of the kitchen, a guest is always expected either for breakfast or dinner.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

Ootacamund.

BAD OMENS IN MADRAS.

If you hear anybody sneezing or you see any sudden putting out of a burning light just at the time of contemplation there will be an utter defeat.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

Ootacamund.

¹ First *kirtī* was engraved, and then the *r* was cancelled.

GORAKHPUR COPPER-PLATE GRANT OF JAYADITYA OF VIJAYAPURA.

BY PROFESSOR F. KIELHORN, C.I.E.; GÖTTINGEN.

THE plate which contains this inscription was discovered in the Gōrākhpur District of the North-Western Provinces, near the river called the Little Gandhak.¹ It was brought to Mr. John Ahmuty, Magistrate of the district, and by him communicated to Captain Wilford, who presented it to the Asiatic Society of Bengal, in whose Library it is still deposited. The inscription was first edited in 1807, with a translation and a facsimile, by H. T. Colebrooke, in the *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. IX. pp. 406-12; and Colebrooke's paper was afterwards reprinted in his *Miscellaneous Essays*, Vol. II. pp. 247-54. I now re-edit the inscription from an excellent ink-impression, made and supplied to me by Mr. Fleet.

The plate is inscribed on one side only. It measures about $16\frac{1}{4}$ " broad by $12\frac{1}{4}$ " high, not including an oval projection, with a raised rim, on the proper right side, on which is riveted a disc of the same shape, similarly with a raised rim, which contains a flat button about an inch in diameter; on the countersunk surface of this button there is some emblem which may perhaps be an animal, but it is a good deal worn and damaged. The edges of the plate are fashioned thicker than the inscribed surface, to serve as rims to protect the writing. Towards the bottom, a small portion of the writing has suffered slightly from corrosion; otherwise the preservation of the plate is perfect, and, with the exception of two *aksharas* in line 24, everything may be read with certainty. — The size of the letters is about $\frac{3}{8}$ ". — The characters are boldly and well drawn and deeply engraved. They belong to the northern class of alphabets. Of the same type as those of the Aṃśa inscription of Ādityasēna,² they show a further development of the northern alphabet in the direction of the ordinary Nāgarī, and may perhaps be assigned to the beginning of the 10th century A. D. Attention may be drawn especially to the peculiar manner of writing the diphthongs *ē*, *ai*, *ō* and *au*, when they follow a consonant, which agrees with the practice of some Kaṇheri inscriptions of the 9th century, described by me, *ante*, Vol. XIII. p. 133. It may also be noted that in the conjunct *ry* the sign for *r* is written on the line, in *parāyāṇka*, line 3, and *aryāṇāṇ*, line 23; and that the sign of *anusvāra* is several times placed after, not above, the *akshara* to which it belongs, e.g., in *-satvāṇāṇ*, and *vasuḍhāṇ*, in line 15. — The language is Sanskrit; and, excepting the symbol for *om* at the commencement of the first line, the whole inscription is in verse. As regards orthography, *ḥ* is throughout denoted by the sign for *v*; the dental sibilant is used instead of the palatal in *śasvat*, line 9, and *sāśvat*, line 16, and the palatal instead of the dental in *śachivasya*, line 21 (but not in *sachivah*, line 9); the dental *n* is employed instead of *anusvāra* in *sansāra*, line 2, and *punsās* = (for *punsas*, i. e. *punsas*), line 16; the vowel *ri* occurs instead of the syllable *ri* in *śrītya*, line 13; before *r*, *t* is doubled in *tattra*, line 6, and *bhrāttrā*, line 22; and the word *duḥkha* is (correctly) spelt *dushkha*, in line 5. In respect of grammar and lexicography I may point out the unusual and incorrect word *utkhātīn* 'uprooting' or 'extracting,' in line 3; *nripadhānī* for *rājadhānī*, in line 6; the employment of *śāsita*, in line 12, in the sense of 'given as a grant;' and the ungrammatical use of the gerund *śrītya*, in line 13.

Opening with four verses in honour of the deities Śiva, Brahman, Viṣṇu, and Pārvatī, the inscription (in lines 4-11) relates that at the royal residence of Vijayapura, on the declivity of the northern mountain (*uttaragiri*), there was the king Jayāditya, a son of the king Dharmāditya, and that his minister was Madōli, a son of the minister, the great *sāmanta* Kṛitakīrti. And it records (in lines 11-12) that this Madōli gave the village of Dummuddumaka, which he had obtained by the king's favour, as a grant to the goddess Durgā. Lines 12-18 glorify the liberal, admonish future rulers to respect this grant, and deprecate its resumption. Further, three verses in lines 19-22 state that the preceding *prasasti* of the minister was composed by the Kāyastha Nāgadatta; and another verse adds that the verses referring to

¹ See *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. IX. p. 406.² See Mr. Fleet's *Gupta Inscriptions*, Plate xxviii.

Nāgadatta, who was too modest to speak of himself, were composed by his younger brother Vidyādatta. And the inscription closes with another verse, the purport of which appears to be to record that this poem was composed, or the donation made, at Jivanapalli, another village which the minister owed to the royal favour. — The only point of interest, not contained in the preceding, is, that the king Dharmāditya is compared to a *Bôdhisattva*, and the poet Nāgadatta to Sugata, or Buddha; which would tend to show that the authors, if not Buddhists, were at any rate favourably inclined towards Buddhism.

The inscription is not dated; and the princes mentioned in it do not seem to be known from other records. Of the localities mentioned, Vijayapura was by Colebrooke suggested to be the place of that name near Mirzāpur on the Ganges, on the northern declivity of the Vindhya hills; but he has himself stated that *uttaragiri-katakê* in line 6 would rather signify 'declivity of the northern mountain,' and that this interpretation would point to the range of snowy mountains, i. e., the slopes of the Himālaya. On *Dummuddumāka* Colebrooke has the note that a village of this name is situated in the district of Allahābād, within twenty miles of Bijaypur on the Ganges; but that the name is not uncommon, and may belong to some place nearer to the northern mountains. I myself am unable to identify either Vijayapura or the villages *Dummuddumāka* and Jivanapalli.

TEXT.³

- 1 Ōm⁴[†*] Kshity⁵-ādi-yajamān-ānta-mūrttayō viśvag⁶-ātmanē | munīnām dhyāna-gamy[†*]-ya samasta-vyāpinē ta(na)maḥ || Ajyē(ya)
- 2 jagad-utpatti-sthiti-pralaya-kārinē | sansāra⁷-sāgar-ōttāra-pōta-saṁsmṛitayē namaḥ || Namō=stu Larkshma(kshm?)-pa-
- 3 tayō Śā(śā)sha-paryāṅka-śāyinē | trailōkya-kantak-ōtkhāti-Vishnavē viśvarūpiṇē || Namē(mō)=stu nirjitatśēsha-Ma-
- 4 hish[†*]sura-gh[†*]tinē | Pārsvatī-pādapadm[†*]ya jagad-[ā]nanda-dāyinē || Vēṇu⁸-van-ūlī-vishamām śikhara-prākā-
- 5 ra-mālay-ālaṅghyam | nirjjhara-gabhīra-parikhā-dustaram=ast-āri-santrāsām || Avidita-viyōga-dushkham santōsha-sa-
- 6 māpta-sakala-vishaya-sukham | asty=uttaragī(gi)ri⁹-katakê Vijayapū(pu)ram nāma nṛipadh[ā]nī || Tatra cha chatur-ambhōdhi-bhānta-ya-
- 7 śāl sthira-dayō mahā-sat[t*]vaḥ | śrīmān=Dharmādityō nṛipatir=abhūd=Vō(bō)-dhisat[t*]va iva || Tasya cha śās=īva sēvyō bhā(bhō)gyō
- 8 lōkasya kalpasākh=īva [†*] hradā iva tṛishṇ-āpaharāḥ sutō=bhavat¹⁰ śrī-Jayādi-tyaḥ || Rāj=āpi yō vinitō yuv=āpi dhīrō
- 9 manōbhava-dvēśī | sarvva-pradō=pi sa(śa)śva[t]=sarvvasya gṛihita-paramārthaḥ || Tasya sachivaḥ śrut-ārthō mah-ānubhāvō vi-
- 10 nirjit-ārātīḥ | sāmantasya sumahataḥ Kṛitakīrttēr=mmantripas=tanayaḥ || Yasya cha suchāru-mū[r*]ttēr=ddadataḥ Karṇō=pi
- 11 l[ā]ghavam yātaḥ | prakṛiti-para-va(ba)ddha-kēkshō¹¹ va(ba)bhūva sa śrī-Madōlir¹²=iti || *Dummuddumāka*-nāmā grāmō rāja-prasā-
- 12 da-samprāptaḥ | kṛishi-vasati-gō-dhan-āghyō Durgāyai śāsitas=tēna (11) Bhavati hi satām vibhūtiḥ par-ōpakṛitayē

³ From an impression supplied to me by Mr. Fleet.

⁴ Expressed by a symbol.

⁵ Metre, Ślōka (Aunshtabh); and of the three next verses.

⁶ The proper spelling would be *viśvag-*; but the palatal sibilant is occasionally employed in this word, in later works.

⁷ Read *sansāra*.

⁸ Metre, Āryā; up to the end.

⁹ The correction in this word appears to have been made already in the original.

¹⁰ Read *=bhavach=chhri*.

¹¹ Read *-kēkshō*; 'who by nature was striving for final beatitude.'

¹² The second *akshara*, *dē*, of this word is quite clear in the impression.

- 13 mahântam=âsri(śri)tya | jalavê(dhê)r=ādāya jalām jaladāḥ sasyāya varshanti¹³ ||
 Sva-para-jana-nirvviśô(śê)shāḥ santê(ntô) vira-
 14 lâ hi santi ha(pha)la-dânê | kalpadrumāḥ kiyantaḥ śru(śrû)yantê Nandanê=pi
 vanê ||(11) Mâ kalaya kaliyugô(gê)=pi hi samâ-
 15 natām tâta sarvva-sat[t*]v[â*]nām [i*] rakshati vasudhām narapati=âtma-griham
 n=au(ai)va laghu-sat[t*]vah ||(11) Janma maraṇa=cha sampa-
 16 d=vipach=cha punsâs¹⁴=tu sâ(śâ)śvati-bhavati | yadi ch=aivam para-kîrtim svâm=iva
 kasmân=na pâlayata(tha) || Kṛishi-kâraṇa-sam-
 17 yuktām vasundharām yô dadâti sasyavatîm¹⁵ | vrajati vimân-ârûdhaḥ pitṛin¹⁶
 sa a(â)hl[â*]dayan=nâkam || Apahara-
 18 ti yô=pi mōhâd=vê(dê)va-dvija-pâda-kalpitām vasudhām [i*] svargga-sthân=api
 niyataṁ pātayati sa pūrvvajân nara-
 19 kê || Atinirmala-kula-janmâ dēva-dvija-guru-narapati-nati-sakta[h i] khânita-bhûri-
 tadâgâ(ga)ḥ kârîta-dêvâla-
 20 yas=tyâgî || Sugata-pratimaḥ kṛipayâ guṇa-nidhir-abhavat¹⁷ jit-êndriyô vidvân |
 vipriya-vâdê vi-
 21 mukhaḥ kâyasthō Nâgadatta iti || 'Sa(sa)chivasya tēna rachitâ lakshana-yuktâ
 su[va*]rṇa-kṛita-śôbhâ |
 22 sad-vṛittâ lalita-padâ bhaktyâ parayâ prasastir=iyam || Sva-guṇa-khyâpana-bhîrôs=
 tasya bhrâtrâ ka-
 23 nīyasâ¹⁸ rachitam [i*] a(â)ryânâm tritayam=idam Vidyâdattēna bhût-ârtham ||
 Râja-prasâda-lavdhâ(bdhâ) dhana-kanaka-sa-
 24 mâkul=âtisasyavatî [i*] Jīvanapallir=iti satām grām[ô]=yam s[ô]=sya tad=[â?]-
 parah¹⁹ ||[i*]

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

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Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.

(Continued from page 156)

The influence of a learned orthography upon the linguistic aspect of our monuments does not, as a whole, allow itself to be measured in detail with absolute precision. I shall only quote one example, as sufficient to enable the reader to grasp my meaning. Girnar distinguishes between $\underline{\text{I}}$ n and $\underline{\text{J}}$ n, but only in the interior of bases. Is preserves $\underline{\text{I}}$ everywhere where Saṁskṛit would write it in the bases, but it writes only $\underline{\text{J}}$ in terminations, even where Saṁskṛit usage would have required a cerebral n. I confess that a comparison with the Eastern versions, all of which know only $\underline{\text{J}}$, makes this invariable practice seem, in my eyes, to be suspicious. I strongly doubt if the popular pronunciation of the people of Girnar correctly distinguished the two n's, but I have no means of rendering this doubt a certainty. Whatever may have been the fact in this and in other analogous instances, many of the divergencies which distinguish our parallel versions are not reducible to an orthographic interpretation. However great may be the latter's importance in its legitimate sphere of action, it leaves remaining a series of phenomena which constitute dialectic characteristics. It is this face of the question which still remains to be considered.

From this point of view the monuments of Piyadasi divide themselves clearly into two main groups. In the one, there is no cerebral n, no palatal ñ, an initial y is elided, l is

¹³ Originally *varshpanti* was engraved, but the *p* has been struck out.¹⁴ Read *punsas*.¹⁵ Originally *sasyavatim* was engraved, but *tim* has been altered to *tin*.¹⁶ Originally *pityan* was engraved, but it has been altered to *pitin*.¹⁷ Read =*abhavaj-jit*.¹⁸ Originally *nīyasâ* was engraved, but it has been altered to *nīyasâ*.¹⁹ Colebrooke's reading is *sasyataraḥ parah*.

substituted for *r*, the nominative masculine, and usually the nominative neuter, end in *é*, and the locative in *asi*; the other distinguishes the cerebral *ṛ* and the palatal *ṛ̥*, retains the initial *y* and the *r* unchanged, makes the nominative singular of masculine *a*-bases end in *ô*, and the locative in *amhi* or in *é*. The first comprises all the inscriptions, except Girnar and Kapur di Giri, which alone constitute the second class. It is the more impossible to doubt the existence in this case of a dialectic difference, because certain of the peculiarities which denote the first group are quoted by the grammarians as proper to the Mâgadhi dialect. Such are the nominative in *é* and the substitution of *l* for *r*. It must be admitted that these are also the only points of agreement, and that neither in its omissions — the absence of *ṛ*, *ṛ̥*, *é*, the elision of initial *y* — nor in certain peculiar usages — the retention of *j*, of *chh*, &c., — does the dialect of the inscriptions correspond with the Mâgadhi of the grammarians. On the contrary, we have seen that the use of the group *st*, attributed by the grammarians to Mâgadhi appears only in the orthography of Girnar.

Is it possible to trace subdivisions, to distinguish sub-dialects, within the limits of these two main groups? Between Girnar and Kapur di Giri, if we except the groups *st* and *st* on the one hand, and the use of the three sibilants on the other, both of which, in my opinion, should not be admitted into the calculation, the only differences of a somewhat general character, which I note, are the group *tp* at Girnar, which, according to my theory, corresponds to a pronunciation *pp*, and which is represented at Kapur di Giri by *t*; the locative singular, which is in *mhi*, and more rarely in *é* at Girnar, and in *é*, never in *mhi* at Kapur di Giri; and the genitive of bases in *in*, which is in *inô* at Girnar, and which, at Kapur di Giri, follows, by the formation *isa*, the analogy of the declension in *a*. It may also be noted that the group *hm* or *mh*, which is retained at Girnar, is unknown at Kapur di Giri, where *bamhaṇa* is written *bramaṇa*, and that the termination *vya* of the future participle passive, which usually at Girnar adheres to the spelling *vya*, is, at Kapur di Giri, generally assimilated to *va* (*vva*). Finally, we may add one or two other divergencies, such as the 3rd person plural in *arē* used at Girnar, and the accidental substitution of *y* for *j* at Kapur di Giri. We can thus have no hesitation in holding that the two sets of inscriptions, to a certain degree at least, do reflect different shades of dialect, which are absolutely distinct.

I do not think that the case is the same with regard to the versions which constitute the former group. If we put out of consideration the alleged use of *é* and *sh* at Khâlsi, regarding which I shall shortly take an opportunity of stating my opinion, and which has nothing to do with the present discussion, the only appreciable differences refer to the initial *y*, the use of *r*, and the termination of nominatives neuter in *amh*. Khâlsi and the columnar edicts retain the initial *y* more frequently than the others, but as they present at the same time a number of examples of its elision, even in the same words, it is clear that no linguistic conclusion can be drawn from the fact, especially as in the versions which elide it most regularly, at Jaugada and Dhauli, examples are inversely found of its retention. In some instances Khâlsi makes the nominative of neuter bases in *a*, in *amh* and not in *é*: but it also contains a more considerable number of nominatives in *é* of bases usually treated as neuters; on the other hand, in one instance, Jaugada writes *anusāsanaṁ*. Rûpnâth writes *chhavachharé* and *chirajhithê*, *ârâdhavê*, *pakarê*, but, also, *sâtîlêkê*, *apalâdhiyêna*, and *ahâlê*; and if it is admitted that it throughout retains the initial *y*, it must not be forgotten that it is short, that it has only three such examples, and that it is impossible to assume the existence of a peculiar dialect from such a detail, in the face of its otherwise perfect agreement with those inscriptions which more nearly resemble Mâgadhi. It is plain, however, that we must not neglect sporadic discrepancies. They have a certain significance which should be cleared up. This problem appears to me to be an easy one. It will solve itself when we have elucidated one point, regarding which people have, I think, come to wrong conclusions.

It has been admitted hitherto that each of the versions of the edicts faithfully represents the dialect of the country in which it has been engraved. I believe that

this is a mistake, and that the deductions, which have been formed on this basis, are altogether unfounded. *A priori* it would be extremely surprising that a single dialect should have reigned, without rival and without shades of difference, throughout the whole of north and north-eastern India, from Khālsi to Jaugada, by way of Bairāt and Rūpnāth. Our scepticism will be found to be strengthened by several particular reasons.

According to this theory, at the time of Aśōka, both at Dhanli and Jaugada, as well as at Rūpnāth and Allahabad, people must have employed a dialect which made nominatives masculine of *a*-bases terminate in *ē*, and which changed *r* into *l*. This I shall, for the sake of brevity, term the **Māgadhi of Aśōka**. Now the inscription of Khandagiri, quite close to those of Dhanli and Jaugada, the date of which cannot be fixed with accuracy, but is certainly not more than a century later than the monuments of Piyadasi, and which appears to emanate from a local sovereign, makes the same nominatives in *ē* and the locatives in *ē*, preserves the etymological *r*, and in a word presents none of the characteristic traits of this dialect. We are thus led to think that Aśōka's dialect was not that of the country. The ancient inscriptions of the Bharhut *stūpa*, mid-way between Rūpnāth and Allahabad, perhaps contemporary with Piyadasi, of a surety not much later, and which are certainly expressed in a language analogous to the local idiom, present no trace of Magadhimism. So also at Sanchi; yet General Cunningham has discovered there a fragment of an edict which, with a probability almost equivalent to certainty, he attributes to Piyadasi. Now, in this, fragmentary as it is, the nominatives in *ē*, words like *chilāthitike* leave no room for doubt. It was written in Māgadhi. But all the native inscriptions found in the same locality, either contemporary with it, or belonging to a very nearly contemporary epoch, agree without exception in the use of a Prākṛit free from Magadhimisms. In the other localities we are not so fortunate as to be able to use parallel monuments for controlling the apparent evidence of those of Piyadasi, but these facts are sufficiently significant. Evidently, the use of the Māgadhi dialect in his edicts does not prove that it was current and in vulgar use in the localities where they have been found. The conclusion readily presents itself to our minds. It was in Magadha that the head-quarters of Piyadasi's empire was situated. Māgadhi must have been the language of his court, and nothing can be simpler than to suppose that he used it throughout the extent of his dominions to address his people, and more specially his officers, the representatives of his power.¹

But then, it will be said, how is it that the inscriptions of the extreme north-west and of the coast of Surāshṭra escape this common level? The question appears to me to be capable of two explanations, each of which strengthens the other. No one, I think, doubts that it was in the north-west and west that a graphic system, adapted to the necessities of Indian languages, was first elaborated. At least the inscriptions of Kapur di Giri and of Girnar testify that in each case there had been already constituted a peculiar graphic system with its own traditions.

¹ At the other extremity of India, in Ceylon, we find a sign which favours this theory. However great, as regards details, may be the exaggerations of the Sinhalese traditions with reference to the connection of Aśōka with Tāmrapaṇṇi, the testimony of Piyadasi himself would appear to indicate that he held certain relations with that distant island. That he profited by these relations to help forward the diffusion of Buddhism, his zeal and the analogy of his conduct elsewhere do not permit us to doubt. It is hence the more interesting to follow up the traces, which have, in several instances, been pointed out, of the influence of the Māgadhi dialect on the ancient language of Ceylon. The most ancient inscriptions which have been found in the island are without doubt of sensibly later date than Piyadasi. This interval explains the alterations which the Māgadhi tradition has undergone from the time of the earliest inscriptions. The fact itself of its introduction, which it is difficult to refer to any author except Piyadasi, only stands out the more clearly from the persistence of certain traits. I do not speak merely of grammatical peculiarities: the locative in *si*, nominative in *ē*, &c., which have been pointed out by P. Goldschmidt (*Ind. Ant.*, 1877, p. 318; cf. Rhys Davids, *Ind. Ant.*, 1872, pp. 138 & ff. Ed. Muller, *Ancient Inscriptions of Ceylon*, p. 8; and the recent observations of Prof. Kern in the *Bijdragen tot de Taal . . . kunde van Nederl. Indië*, IV. 10, p. 562). Two palæographic facts are equally characteristic. One is the adoption of the sign Λ before its limitation to the palatal *ś* (see below), and the other is the absence of the palatal *ñ*, not employed in the official writing of Piyadasi, and which we see, for example, in the inscription of Kirinde (E. Muller, No. 57) expressed by the compound *ny*, in *svanyutthipē*. It is, therefore, probable that Piyadasi had directly or indirectly transferred to Ceylon, as he had done to the provinces of his empire, the methods peculiar to his Māgadhi system of orthography.

These were facts which Piyadasi found established, and which he was obliged to take into his calculations. In the second place, it will be remarked that the two systems of spelling, or, if it is preferred, the two dialects used by Piyadasi, exactly coincide with the distinction between his immediate dominions and the merely vassal provinces, which, I believe, I have established by arguments perfectly independent, and having no reference to the facts which we are now considering. It was quite natural that Piyadasi should accommodate himself to the local customs of regions which were only indirectly attached to his empire, and in which traditions must have existed which it might have been both suitable and convenient to respect.

Certain useful indications can be drawn from the inscriptions. The various versions are not equally consistent in the application of orthographical peculiarities which correspond to dialectic differences. Even at Dhauli and Jaugada, where the initial *y* is most regularly elided, it is occasionally retained: *yē* (J. det. I. 4); *yā* (Dh. IV. 17); *yē* (Dh. V. 20; det. I. 8); at Khālsi and on the columns this is much more common: at Rūpnāth, the *y* is retained in the only three words in regard to which the question could be raised; at Bairāt, we have, side by side, *añ* and *yañ*. On the other hand, it is at Rūpnāth that we find two or three words in which the *r* is retained and not replaced by *l*. As a general rule the distinction between masculine and neuter is lost in the Māgadhi of the inscriptions, both genders making the nominative in *ē*. Nevertheless, at Khālsi, it would appear that we have some nominatives masculine in *ō* (*sātiyaputō*, II. 4; *kēlalaputō*, ibid.; *sō*, V. 14; cf., also, *lājānō*, II. 5), while neuters very often have the nominative in *añ*. These inconsistencies can be explained in two ways. They result either from the influence of the learned language, or from the sporadic action of the local dialect entering into the official Māgadhi. I do not venture to decide.

Other irregularities, such as those which we meet at Kapur di Giri and at Gīrnar, are inverse cases. Thus, we have frequently in both versions nominatives singular in *ē* (*i*) both for masculines and neuters. I may quote at Gīrnar: *prādēvikē*, *yutē*, *yārisē*, *bhūtapurvē*, *vadhītē*, *tārisē*, *apaparisavē*, *dēvānañpiyē*, *sēṣē*, *kañmē*, *dhāñmacharaṇē*, *mañgalē*, *dasanē*, *dānē*, *vipulē*, *kañmē*, *nūllē*; at Kapur di Giri: *añhiyōkē*, *si*, *athi*, *sakali*, *matē*, *turamayē*, *jirē*, *bhūtapurvē*, *vaḍhitē*, *tadiśē*, *danē*, *nichē*, *darśanē*, *ētē*, *yē*, *kṛavi*, *hati*, *yi*, *nichi*, *viḥitē*, *ghatiti*, *mahalakē*, *likhitē*; at Kapur di Giri, several locatives in *asi* (*mahanasasi*, I. 2; *gaṇanasī*, III. 7; *yutasi*, V. 13; *ōrōdhanasi*, VI. 14; &c. are contrasted with the ordinary form, which is in *ē*. It is clear that these accidental forms cannot be explained in this case by the influence either of a learned language, or of a popular one. They are so many Māgadhisms, whose only possible source can have been the influence of the Māgadhi officially employed by the suzerain of the states.

To sum up, the inscriptions of Piyadasi divide themselves, from a linguistic point of view, into two series, of which one, that of the north-west, betrays by certain, though not very important, indications, the existence of a dialectic sub-division. The other must represent the official language of the royal chancery. They bring before us two strongly contrasted orthographical systems; the one more nearly allied to the popular speech, the other with a greater tendency to approaching etymological and learned forms. Neither the one nor the other is subject to definite rules;—neither the one nor the other escapes individual discrepancies, or certain local influences. We shall see from what follows, and it is this which gives these facts a real interest, that this state of things marks the first phase of an evolution which was destined to accentuate itself more and more as it pursued its course. We shall see, in the epoch which follows, on the one hand, the Mixed Saṅskṛit, on the other hand the monumental Prākṛit, each continuing in parallel lines the tradition of which we here grasp the most ancient manifestations.

On several occasions, in the remarks which precede, I have been led to speak of “a learned language,” and “a learned orthography.” These expressions might lend themselves to

misconceptions which it is my duty to prevent. Now that I have explained myself regarding the popular language, it remains to determine, so far as we can from the indications at our disposal, what was the linguistic situation from the point of view of this other most important factor, Vedic or Classical Sāṁskṛit.

Palæographic facts here hold the first place. Some are common to both of Piyadasi's modes of writing, others are peculiar to only one or other of them.

The north-western alphabet possesses no special signs for marking the long vowels. It is quite true that many languages are content with a similar notation, but Sāṁskṛit does not present itself to us under ordinary conditions. A language partly artificial and used only by the learned, leaping into existence, after a long preparation, ready made and almost immutable, it had a grammar before it was put into writing. Neither in its orthography, nor in its grammatical forms, does it shew any sensible trace of progressive development. It could only be put into writing, at the time when it did commence to be written, under the same conditions as those under which it has continued to be written. A language thus elaborated must have imposed beforehand the power of distinguishing long vowels on the alphabet, by means of which it was intended to record it. An alphabet, which was not capable of making this distinction, would certainly never have sufficed to record it.

I may also mention a peculiarity which is common to both methods of writing. I have just now drawn attention to the fact that **neither of them represents the doubling of identical or homogeneous consonants.** Now, from the time when Sāṁskṛit first makes its appearance, it observes this duplication, wherever it should be etymologically expected. No one can imagine either the Vedic Sāṁskṛit or Grammatical and Classical Sāṁskṛit being written without observing this practice. But, once established for the learned language, this duplication could not have failed to introduce itself into the popular orthography, as we shall see did actually occur in the case of the literary Prākṛit. It will, therefore, be asked how the orthography of the dialects, which we are at present considering, did not, of its own motion, adopt so natural a usage. For my part, I only see one satisfactory explanation, — **the persistent influence of the Semitic method or methods of writing upon which the alphabets of Piyadasi were founded.** A long effort was necessary to overcome this influence, and the sequel will shew how the new practice is exactly one of the traits which characterised the constitution and expansion of the literary language.

The Indian alphabet, on the other hand, did possess special signs for the long vowels, but when it is considered that at Khālsi, and perhaps at Bairāt and Rūpnāth, there are no signs for *ī* and *ū* long, and that in the other versions instances of inexactness in the notation of long vowels are continually met with, it will, I think, be unhesitatingly concluded that, **at the date of our inscriptions, a fixed, arrested form of language, like Sāṁskṛit, had not yet been established in general use, for it would not have failed to act as a regulator and model for the popular languages, or to introduce into their orthography the precision, the unity and the consistency in which they are so much wanting.**

The Indian alphabet of Piyadasi has only one sign to represent *r*; whether it precedes or follows a consonant. Would this have been possible if that alphabet were used to record Sāṁskṛit? Now, it is actually in the period which immediately follows, that it develops new resources in this respect. From the time of the inscriptions of Nānāghāt, we find the definite notation of *r* after another consonant² well established, and, shortly afterwards, the same sign transferred to the top of the consonant which it accompanied, served to express an antecedent *r*.

² At Bharhut, as in later times at Nānāghāt and elsewhere, *r* after a consonant is placed below it, either in its zigzag form (𑀘) as in *ḍkranṭi*, or in the perpendicular form, as in 𑀓 of *brahṇa*. (Cf. Cunningham, *Bharhut Stūpa*, Insc. Nos. 76, 97, 99.)

We can also assert that the sign for the vowel *ṛi* did not yet exist in the time of Aśoka. The reason is simple, and is quite independent of any *a priori* argument. It is clear to every one that the sign J of the vowel *ṛi*, in the most ancient form in which it appears, is derived from the sign used to mark *r* in composition with a preceding consonant, *vis.*, J; and we have just seen that this sign did not develop till after the time of Piyadasi.

Another lacuna is more significant still; it is the absence of three distinct signs corresponding to the three sibilants of the learned orthography. I am now speaking only of the Indian alphabet. Khālsi allows us to show that this absence was perfectly real, and that it was neither voluntary or merely apparent.

It will be remembered that Khālsi, in addition to ᳚ , the ordinary sign for *s*, also employs another form, ᳛ . This *s* has been considered as representing the palatal *ś*. It is true that this last letter has an identical or analogous form in the most ancient inscriptions in which it appears, *i.e.*, at Nāsik and at Gīrnar. But we must understand matters. It is not possible to admit that, at Khālsi, the first edicts and the last ones differ between themselves in dialect, and I consider that the conclusions to which I came in the Introduction of this work are unassailable, that ᳛ , at Khālsi, is merely an alternative graphic form of ᳚ . Other facts confirm my opinion. The sign ᳛ reappears in the Edict of Bairāt, and in the two inscriptions of Rāmnāth, the first presents only a single example, in the word *svarga*, in which the palatal *ś* has no right to exist. The inscriptions of Rāmnāth are, unfortunately, either badly defaced or very badly reproduced. Such as we have them, they do not lend themselves to a translation, or even to an approximate interpretation; all that we can remark is that the first uses the sign ᳛ and that alone, and the other sign ᳚ and that alone. This is a very strong reason for considering that the two signs are simple equivalents. The demonstration is completed by facts drawn from the other end of India. Mr. Rhys Davids (*Ind. Ant.*, 1872, p. 130) was the first to point out, in the most ancient inscriptions of Ceylon, the parallel use of two sibilants ᳚ and ᳛ . The second is clearly only a modification of the ᳛ of Khālsi or of its prototype. Since then, Dr. E. Muller (*Ancient Inscript. of Ceylon*, No. 1) has published one in which the form ᳛ alone figures. He has drawn from these facts (p. 16) the only reasonable conclusion,—that which Mr. Rhys Davids had already very justly put forward,—that the two signs express indifferently one and the same sound. We cannot come to a conclusion for the north different from that to which we have come for the south. The distance between the two localities of occurrence, and the absolute analogy of the facts prohibit us from thinking of a dialectic differentiation between the two sibilants. The sequel of palæographic history shows us that the form ᳛ came to be subsequently employed to express the palatal *ś*, when a need to express it, that is to say, to write in Saṁskṛit, was experienced. At the time of Piyadasi, the Indian alphabet did not yet possess the palatal *ś*; and it therefore had not yet been applied, in anything like a regular and consequent way, to the learned language.

Another strictly parallel fact indirectly confirms this. By the side of ᳚ , the inscription of Khālsi, in its second half, frequently uses a form ᳜ . Dr. Bühler (p. 26) transliterates it by *śh*, and approves of my having recognized its relationship with the cerebral *śh* of the complete alphabet. I fear that there has been a misunderstanding here. I do, it is true, believe that the ᳜ of Nāsik and of Gīrnar (Rudradāman) is derived from this ᳜ , but I in no way believe that this last form had the value of a cerebral at Khālsi. In spite of the transliteration *śh*, I would not venture to assert that such is even the opinion of Dr. Bühler, and in any case I could not agree with him if it is. The sign does not appear till about the 10th Edict, and only becomes common in the 11th, 12th and 13th, although the form is not absolutely unknown to the former ones, as we have it also in the 4th Edict, l. 11. In the more than 110 instances in which Dr. Bühler reads *śh* at Khālsi, there are only thirty in which the cerebral *śh* could be expected. Under these circumstances, and the transition between the forms ᳚ and ᳜ being easy, the steps being marked out by several intermediate shapes both at Khālsi and elsewhere, it is absolutely impossible to consider the sign ᳜ as anything other than a graphic variant

of ८. The perfect indifference with which the engravers use one sign or the other is really quite evident. All that has happened is the same as what we have already proved for ८. In subsequent times advantage has been taken of this duplication of forms to apply one of them to the notation of the cerebral *sh*, and it has become fixed in its new function, but the fact is later than our inscriptions.

To sum up, — neither the North-Western nor the Indian alphabet could have been at this epoch used to write Saṅskṛit. The Indian alphabet, the only one of the two which subsequently became applied to Sanskrit, appears before us in the condition of undergoing the modifications, which eventually prepared it for that rôle. We know of no trace of any different alphabet, which could have served for the notation of Saṅskṛit, and we are driven to the conclusion that at the time of Piyadasi Saṅskṛit had not yet been written, and, as all our arguments apply equally to the religious, (Vedic) language, the conclusion holds equally good for it as well as for classical Saṅskṛit properly so called.

Between these two languages there is, however, one important difference. The elaboration of classical Saṅskṛit could only have taken place with a view to a wide, profane use, — with a view to a written use. To say that it was not written, is to say that it did not yet practically exist, — at least in its ultimate form. But it is not so in regard to the Vedic language. Not only could its essential monuments exist in an oral state, but they could have been, in this form, the object of a culture purely oral, and more or less complete. Eminent Indian scholars have considered and still consider that the composition of the *prâtisādhya*s does not imply the use of writing. I need not here expatiate on a subject to which we shall again be conducted by the conclusions of the following chapter. These remarks have merely for their aim to put forward (while we explain it) an apparent contradiction between these two propositions: on the one hand the palæographic condition of our monuments proves that the classical idiom which subsequently took so prominent a position had either not received as yet its complete elaboration, or had at least not yet been regularly written, while, on the other hand, the orthography of the popular dialects as it is reflected by our monuments, reveals the action, more or less latent, none the less certain, of a previous philological culture. It is to the oral tradition of the religious literature, to the efforts for its preservation and for its phonetic analysis, of which it was the cause, that we have to trace back this influence. The reader cannot fail to remark how happily this origin accounts for the peculiar character of the action, unequal and indirect, incomplete and accidental, which we have been able to describe.

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

(Continued from page 118).

XXXIV. The Tenth *pāṇnam*, *virathaa*, *virastava*, in 43 vv. Enumeration of the names of the siriVaddhamāna [445] (v. 4). It begins: *namidāna jinaṃ jayajīvaṃdhavaṃ bhaviyakusumarayanīyaraṃ* ! *Viraṃ giriṃdadhīraṃ thuṇāmi* (staumi) *payatthanāmēhiṃ* || 1 || It concludes: *iya nānāvali saṃthuyā siri Virajīṇiṃda māṃdasuṇassa* ('ṇassa ?) *viyara karuṇāḥ Jinavara* ! *sitapayamaṇahatthiraṃ* (?) *Vira* ! || 43 ||

The *gachchāyāram*, which in V., in the *Ratnasāgara*, and in the second collection of all the *pāṇnas* that I have before me, is cited as a part of the collection (see pp. 429, 431) contains in 138 vv. general rules of life, especially those for the *bhikkhu* and *bhikkhunī*, in the form of a lesson to Gōyama, who is several times mentioned in it. It begins: *namidāna Mahāviraṃ* . . *gachchāyāraṃ kiṃchī uddharimō suvasamuddāḥ* || 1 || *atth' ēgē Gōyamā* ! *pāṇi* ! *jē ummaggaṇāṭṭhiē* ! *gachchhammi saṃvasittāṇaṃ* ! *bhamai bhavaparamparaṃ* || 2 || The metre is almost everywhere ślōka, though two syllables are often counted as one, one short being cast away; so for example in v. 15: *saṃgahōvaggahaṃ vibhā* ! *na karēi a jōgaṇi* ! *samaṇaṃ*

samañiñ tu dikkhittā | sāmāyāriñ na gāhañ || 15 || vihiñā, samañam, samañiñ are to be read as dissyllables.

At the end it is called (see verse 1) an extract from the mahānisiḥakappa and the vavahāra, sources which explain the use of the ślōka here: mahānisiḥakappāḍ | vavahārāḍ taḥē 'va ya sāhn-sāhupi-atthāḥ | gachhāyārañ samuddham || 136 || paḍhamasūñ sāhupō, ēaṃ | asaḍḍhāyāñ vivaḍḍhiñ | uttamasuanissamdañ | gachhāyārañ suuttamañ || 137 || gachhāyārañ supittāñ | [446] paḍhittā bhikkhu bhikkhuyā | kuṇamtu jañ jābhāḥapiñ | ichchhamtā hiam appaṇō || 138 ||

The fourth group of Siddhānta texts is composed of D., the six chhēdasūtras.

So at least according to Bühler's List (see above, p. 226). In the Āyāraṇi and in the Ratnasāgara (Calc. 1880) these assert a prior place — between the upāṅgas and the pañnas. The name chhēdasūtra⁶⁵ (chhēda, cutting, section ?) can be explained in many ways. There is no authentic explanation that I have been able to discover. This name recurs in the texts in question as infrequently as in the paragraphs in the MSS. The first time where it is mentioned, so far as I know,⁶⁶ is in the Āvaśy. nijj. 8, 55: jañ cha mahākappañ⁶⁷ jāṇia sēsāṇi chhēa suttāṇi, from which passage it is clear that then, besides the mahākappañ, there existed several other texts belonging to this group (kalpādini Schol.); and in another passage of the above cited work (16, 100), there are enumerated three texts which, at present, still bear this name and which state that they were divided⁶⁸ just as we find them. They appear [447] to belong together after a fashion and to form a united group. In the enumeration of the aṅgaṇapaviṭṭha texts in the Nandī, in the Pākshikasūtra and in the three sāmāchārīs we find these texts arranged in the same order (dasāñam, kappassa, vavahārassa). In the sāmāchārīs, in the passage in reference to the number of days necessary to learn them, we find that but one suyakkaṇḍha is allotted to them all: kappavavahāradasāñam (so Āvi., Svi., dasāka'rāṇam V.) ēgō suakkaṇḍhō. The Vidhipr., however, states that some (kēi) "kappavavahārāñam bhinnam suyakkaṇḍham ichhamti."

The title chhēdasutta is not mentioned in this list of the aṅgaṇapaviṭṭhas or aṅgaḥāiras, which cites, in addition to the three texts held to be chhēdasuttas, two others immediately afterward, one name alone intervening. These additional chhēdasuttas are nīṣha and mahānisiḥa, which now stand at the head of the chhēdas. The mahākappasūtra (see p. 478), too, is found in the list, but in a different place — about 24 places previous. From this we draw the conclusion that the author of the list did not regard the mahākappasūtra (see p. 478) as belonging to these chhēdasuttas.

The mahākappa^o is mentioned in no other passage. In all other passages, where the chhēdasūtras are enumerated, the nīṣham is invariably placed at the head of the list. Thus in Āvi., where the number of days necessary for learning the chhēdasūtras is stated, [448] there are enumerated as the "chhēdaggaṇṭha" (here placed between upāṅgas and pañnas; see p. 446) the seven names: nīṣha, dasā, kappa, vavahāra, mahānisiḥa, pañchakappa and jākappa. The pañchakappa is mentioned also under the pañnas. Cf. above, pp. 427, 430. The case is similar in Svi., where, however, the name chhēa^o is omitted, and the discussion on this subject is inserted between that concerning aṅgas 4 and 5. In Svi. only sīha, dasā, kappa and vavahāra are treated of together, pañchakappa and jākappa not being mentioned, and mahānisiḥa is disposed of at another place, viz.: — at the end of the entire jōgavihi after the pañnas. V. agrees herein with

⁶⁵ An older form of the name is perhaps chhasua, chhēdasūtra; thus in a citation in the Vichārāmritasaṅgraha: "nīṣham-kiyassa chhēdasūtra"; chhēdasamgha, too, is found in the same place (see p. 430), where it is said that they are five in number.

⁶⁶ The name of the second group of the charittagūṇapramāṇa in the Anuyōgadvāsūtra — chhēdavaddhāvaṇṇat char^o — may be recalled in this connection.

⁶⁷ According to the Scholiast these texts are borrowed from the dīṭhivā (aṅga 12), and, consequently, are to be regarded as śishibhāshita: mahākappaśrutādīnāṃ api śishibhāshitavā(d) dīṭhivāśād uddhṛitya tēhāñ pratipāditatvāt dharmakathānuyōga vṛā (° gatvāś cha ?) prasamgaḥ.

⁶⁸ dasa uddēsapakālā dasāna, kappassa hūnti chhach chēva | dasa chēva vavahārassa hūnti | savvā vi chhavvīsam ||

Svi. completely, with the exception that, as *Āvi.*, it adds pañchakappa and jīakappa to nīṣṭha, dasā, k. and vav. In the metrical portion at the close, the jōgavihāṇapagarana, however, the first four are treated of either as to be learned together in 30 days or as "savvaṇi vi chhēasuttāṇi," v. 22. In the next verse (23) there are statements concerning jīyak. and pañchak. (mahānīṣṭha is not discussed till vv. 63, 64). In the Vichārāmṛitas, the chhēasnam is called nīṣṭha-m-āiyam — on jītak., pañchak. see p. 430 —; and in the commentary on the śrāddhajītakalpa — see below — śrī nīṣṭhādi chhēdagranthasūtra is spoken of. We find that this agrees with Bühler's list (above, p. 226).

Besides this arrangement which places nīṣṭha at the head we meet with statements in modern sources in which the number composing the series varies in many ways. The series, as we have seen above, was never fixed, continually varying between 4 and 7 members.

[449] In the Ratnasāgara (Calc. 1880) we find the following arrangement: vyavahāra-vṛihatkalpa, dasāśruta, nīṣṭha, mahānīṣṭha, jītakalpa. These names are the same with an exception in the case of jītakalpa (Bühler has pañchakalpa; *Āvi.* has both names). The arrangement of Rāj. L. Mitra and after him that of Paṇḍit Kashinath Kuntē, taking its rise from the Siddhāntadharmaśāra, is very remarkable. See my remarks on p. 227.

The uncertainty of modern tradition may, it is true, create an impression unfavourable to the age of the chhēdasūtra texts which we possess. On the other hand, there are sufficient arguments which permit us to ascribe a relatively ancient date to the chief group at least, i. e. the three texts: dasā-kappa-vavahārā. The order which I have here followed is, without doubt, the old arrangement, though, for convenience sake, I adopt that of Bühler from this point on: vavahāra, dasā, kappa. We must here consider the statements of tradition in reference to the origin and composition of these texts.

Haribhadra, on *Āvaśy.* 6, ss, explains the third of the three forms of the sāmāchārī which are mentioned in the text: ōhē dasahā payavibhāgē, the padavibhāgasāmāchārī by chhēdasūtraṇi, and, as we have seen above, p. 357, he states that this is chhēdasūtralakṣhaṇāṇ navama-pūrvād ēva nirvyūḍhā. On *Āvaśy.* 7, s₄ he limits the equalization of the padavi^ochārī to kalpa and vyavahāra (sā cha ka^ohārārūpā). The same statement exists in the avachūri composed A. D. 1383 by Jñānasāgara on the Ōghaniryukti: [450] padavi^ochārī kalpavyavahāraṇ; and pūrva 9 (vastu 3, prābhṛita 20) is referred to as the source — see above, p. 357 — whence this Bhadrabāhusvāminā nirvyūḍhā. The composition of these two texts, kalpa and vyavahāra, is frequently referred back⁶⁹ to Bhadrabāhu, who is said to have made use of the same sources as they. But in the ṛishimaṇḍalasūtra (Jacobi, Kalpas, p. 11), (p. 472) the same is asserted of the third member of this group of texts, the dasāṇ. We have consequently here, as in the case of upāṅga 4, to deal with an author whose name is specially mentioned. Whether this claim is correct or not (we will refer to this question below), the connection with the puvvas according to tradition, is significant.

The contents of the existing chhēdasūtras makes it probable that a large portion of them is of considerable antiquity. This contents refers in general to the clergy and the rules of conduct prescribed⁷⁰ for them, though there is a large admixture of subsidiary matter of a legendary character (e. g. the entire Kalpasūtram). The first two rules, according to the existing order, refer to expiations and penances (prāyaścitta)⁷¹; while all the rest contain general matters referring to discipline.

⁶⁹ The same is asserted of the nīṣṭha; see p. 463n.

⁷⁰ It corresponds consequently to the vinaya of the Buddhists with which, despite all differences, it is closely connected in contents and in style of treatment.

⁷¹ The expression gīṭhā in the last verse of Dharmaghoṣa's śrāddhajītakalpa (see p. 478), treating of the prāyaścitta, is explained in the anonymous scholiast thereupon by gīṭārthāḥ śrīnīṣṭhādicchēdagranthasūtrārthadharāḥ, i. e. gīṭa is explained by chhēdagranthasūtra. Dh. recommends to the gīṭhā the correction of his work, which he conceives of as being closely connected with the chhēdasūtras. This name gīṭa does not agree particularly well with the form of the text of the existing chhēdasūtras, since a large portion of the latter is composed in prose, and ślōka not gīṭhā is the prevailing form of metre in the metrical portions. Cf., however, the name of the sixth book of the second chhēdas.

[451] There is other testimony of an external character which makes for the antiquity of the *chhêdasûtras*. The first of these is, as is well known, closely connected with *aṅga* 1, and is, in fact, called a part of the latter (p. 254). *Chhêdasûtras* 2, 4 bear the stamp of antiquity because they resemble *aṅgas* 1—4 as regards the introduction; and because *chhêdas*. 2—5 resemble the same *aṅgas* as regards the conclusion.⁷² The ancient date of *chhêdas*. 4 is *eo ipso* attested by the thoroughgoing mention of it and its ten sections in *aṅga* 3, 10.

The testimony is not so favourable in the case of *chhêdasûtra* 2. It must be ascribed to a somewhat later date from the fact that it contains a polemic against the *ninhaga*, a mention of the *dasapuvvin* etc. See below. We have exact chronological data for the *Kalpasûtram*, inserted in *chhêdas*. 4. See p. 472.

It is remarkable that there are old commentaries called *bhâshya* and *chûrṇi*,⁷³ composed in *Prâkrit*, the first kind of texts written in *gâthâs*, the second in prose, on three of our texts: — *nisîha*, *vavahâra*, *kappa*. The Nom. Sgl. M. of the 1. Decl. ends invariably in *o* and not in *e*; and extensive use is made of the insertion of an inorganic *m*. The *Prâkrit* shows many traces of a later age, *e. g.*, we find the thematic instead of the declined form. Furthermore, the fact that these *bhâshyas* [452] are, for the most part, composed in *gâthâs*, whereas the verses in the *chhêdasûtras* are mostly *ślôkas*, deserves our attention.

The extent of each of the texts is as follows: — 1. *nisîham* 812 (or 815) *granthas*, — 2. *mahânisîham* 4504 *gr.*, — 3. *vavahâra* 500 *gr.*, — 4. *daśâśrutaskamdham* 800 *gr.*, exclusive of the *kalpasûtra*, that contains 1254 *gr.*, — 5. *bṛihatkalpa* 475 *gr.*, — 6. *pañchakalpa* (is wanting).

XXXV. First *chhêdasûtram*, the *nisîhajjhayanam*. This name is explained, strangely enough, by *nisîtha*, though the character of the contents would lead us to expect *nishedha*. In the scholiast on *Uttarajjh.* 26, 2, *nisîhiyâ* is paraphrased by *naishedhikî*; and so in the scholiast on *Dasavêlîa* 5, 2, 2; *asamañjasanishedhân naishedhikî*; in the scholiast on *Āvaśy.* 7, 1, and on *Anuyôgadv.* introduction (2^b in A) where Hemachandra explains it by *śavapari-sthâpanabhûmiḥ*. The statements in the text in *Āvaśy.* 7, 38 *fg.* are decisive: — *jamhâ tattha nisiddhō tēpaṃ nisîhiâ hōi || 33 || . . jō hōi nisiddhappâ | nisîhiâ tassa bhâvaō hōi | avisuddhassa nisîhiâ kēvalamittam havāi saddō || 35 ||*; in 10, 40, 41 we read *baddham abaddham tu suam*, *baddham tu dūvâlasaṃganiddiṭṭham | tavvivariam abaddham, nisîtham anisîha baddham tu || 40 || bhûē parinayavigaṇē saddakaraṇam tahēva anisîham | pachchannaṃ tu nisîtham nisîha nâmañ jahajjhayanam || 41 ||* Scholiast here⁷⁴) : *iha baddhaśrutam nishidham anishidham anishedham cha, tatra rahasya[453]pâthâd rahasyôpadésâch cha prachhannaṃ nishidham uchyatē, prakâsapâthât prakâsôpadésâch châ 'nishidham, . . nishidham guptârtham uchyatē*. From this we may indubitably⁷⁵ conclude that the explanation by *nisîtha*⁷⁶ is simply an error, and is to be classed in the same category as the explanation of *uvavâiyam* by *aupapâtikam* and of *râyapasēṇaiyyam* by *râjaprasniyam*.

Whether we are to understand *our* text under the *nisîhajjhay°* mentioned in *aṅga* 4 (see p. 280) as part of the first *aṅga* or under the *nisîha nâmañ ajjhayanam* in *Āvaśy.* 10, 41, is a matter of doubt, since its title is perhaps not passive = *pachhannaṃ* (s. below), *guptârtham*, but active in sense. Nevertheless the statements, which (see p. 254 ff.) are found in *aṅga* 1 in relation to its fifth *chûlâ* called *nisîha* (cf. also *nisîhiya* as the name of *ajjh.* 2 of the second *chûlâ*, *ibid.*), and in the introduction of the *nisîthachûrṇi* in reference to the identity of the *chhêdasûtra* with

⁷² It must, however, be noticed that (p. 448) in *Svi.* and *V.* the *chhêda* texts are treated of between *aṅga* 4 and *aṅga* 5.

⁷³ See Jacobi *Kalpas.* pp. 16, 25.

⁷⁴ *padyaḍadyabandhanâd baddham, sâstrôpadésâvad; dvâd. âchârâdiganipitakam . . lôkottaram; abaddham laukikam.*

⁷⁵ In the enumeration of the 10 *sâmâyâri* (*aṅgas* 3, 10, 5, 7, *uttarajjh.* 26, *Āvaśy.* 7) the *śvassayâ*, commandments, are always found together with the *nisîhiyâ*, prohibitions (Leumann).

⁷⁶ Intermediate forms are *nishidha* — see just above — and *nishîtha* in the scholiast on *aṅga* 1.

this fifth *châla*⁷⁷, make at least for the conclusion that tradition regards the *niśham ajjhayanam* in our *chhêdasûtra* as originally forming a part of *aṅga 1* and separated from it at a later period. This does not, of course, exclude the possibility that the text in question existed originally as it exists to-day in an independent condition, and that it was at a later period joined with *aṅga 1*, whence it was again separated.

In the *Nandī* — see below — [454] the *niśham* is mentioned after *dasā kappô vavahârô* and before *mahāniśham*. It is, therefore, certain that our text is referred to. The statements, which are found⁷⁸ in *Āvaśy. 16, 114* (s. p. 255^a) in reference to the three-fold division of *niśham* into three *ajjhayanās*, by name *ugghāyam*, *anugghāyam* and *aruvaṇā*, are not in harmony with the constitution of our text, which contains no trace of such a three-fold division, but on the other hand is divided into 20 *uddêśakas*,⁷⁹ containing hardly anything but prohibitions for the *bhikshu*.⁸⁰ The words *ugghātiya* and *anuggh°* are, it is true, made use of, but this does not presuppose a direct division into 3 *ajjh*.⁸¹ All these prohibitions commence with the following words (cf. the formula in the *Pratimokṣhasûtra* of the Buddhists): — *je bhikkhū . . karēi* and end with *kareṃtaṃ vā sātijjāi*.⁸² We have here then a fixed canonical rule, which makes upon us the impression of being very old. At the conclusion of the *udd.* a penitence of one or, as the case may be, of four months is prescribed: *taṃ sēvamāṇē āvayyati māsiyaṃ parihāraṭṭhāṇaṃ ugghātiyaṃ* (or *anuggh°*, or *chāu°*) *ṇisahā*.

The 20th *udd.* treats especially of this penitence and appeals thereby to the first *udd.* of the *vavahāra*.

[455] At the end there are three *āryās*, in which *Viśāhagaṇi* is stated to be the writer (!): *taṣsa lihiyaṃ niśham*. These *āryās* are counted as constituent parts of the text, since they are followed by the words *iti niśhājjhayanāṇē viśamô uddêsaṃ sammattô*.

There is a very detailed commentary (*bhāṣhya*) in *Prākṛit* in *āryās*, akin to the prose commentary, which *Jinaprabhamuni*, author⁸³ of the commentary on the *paryuṣaṇākālpāniryukti*, mentions as his source of information under the name *niśīthachûrpi*. The *bhāṣhya* offers but little assistance in regard to the explanation of the words of the text, but contains general remarks concerning the contents of each of the *uddêśakas*. It starts with a very lengthy introduction,⁸⁴ which at the end is called *peḍham*, i. e. *pīṭham*, cf. *pīṭhikā* in *Malayagiri*. Each of the paragraphs of the text is called *sūtram* in every case. This commentary does not discuss the three concluding verses of the text. The writer of the Berlin MS. (*Ahmedābād Samv. 1629*) belonged to the stock of *Ahmayadēva*.⁸⁵

XXXVI. Second *chhêdasûtram*, the *mahāniśham*. Instruction of *Gôyama* in reference to transgressions (*salla*) and punishments (*pāyachhitta*, *pachhitta*), in 8 *ajjhayanās*, of which [456] *ajjh. 1, 2* have a text composed partly in *ślôkas* or *trishṭubh*, (Nom. in *o*) and partly in prose (Nom. in *e*); and in *ajjh. 3 ff.* many *ślôkas* are inserted. The single copy which I have by me, and that a very incorrect one, reproduces the text so very imperfectly that even the writer,

⁷⁷ *Śīlāṅka*, in the introduction to the second *śrutask.* of *aṅga 2* says that the "*āhāraprakalpô niśīthah*" is "*nirvyūḍha*" from *pūṛva 9, 3, 20*. (Leumann); see pages 357, 450a.

⁷⁸ *Haribhadra* makes no statement on this head, since he holds the verses to be *nigadasiddha*. Cf. the five-fold division of the *āyāra* in *aṅga 3, 5, 2* into: *māsiē ugghāiē*, *m. anugghāiē*, *chāummāsiē u.*, *chā. anuggh.*, *chā. anugghāiē ārôvaṇā*. (Leumann.)

⁷⁹ 1 with 48 paragraphs, 2 with 59, 3 with 74, 4 with 62, 5 with 76, 6 with 22, 7 with 37, 8 with 19, 9 with 26, etc.

⁸⁰ According to *Kash.* *Kuntē* the *niś.* treats "of the duties of *Sādhus*, and the fines and penalties to be imposed on them when they neglect them."

⁸¹ The 20 *udd.* are, however, divided into 3 groups (1—5, 6—19, and 20; Leumann).

⁸² "Who does this or that and who does not do it." See Leumann, *Ausp. Glossar*, p. 159 s. v. *sājji* (*Pāli sādīyati*) "take," "receive," accept, "permit."

⁸³ A. D. 1307, see *Jacobi, Kalpas.* p. 25; also author of the *Vidhiprapā*, above p. 223.

⁸⁴ Begins: *navabambhachêramaṇo atthārasapadasahassio vētô* (*vêdāh*, see p. 457) *! havati ya sapamchachūlo bahu bahutaraō padaggeṇam* || 1 || *āyārapakappassa tu . .* || 2 || *āyārô aggaṃtiyapakappa taha chūliā niśham ti . .* || 3 || *pakappammi chūliyāē niśhē ya . .* V. 1 is cited in the same form, by *Śīlāṅka* from *Bhadr.*'s *āhāraniryukti* according to Leumann.

⁸⁵ *Samvat 1569* under *Pātasāha Mahamūda*.

overcome by the difficulties in his way, at the conclusion of the first ajjh., begs⁸⁶, in Prakṛit, that the fault be not laid at his door. He says that it is not a kulihyam, but a text *sui generis* with its mixture of verses, half-verses, prose and even single aksharas. See my remarks on p. 472. If my explanation of his words be correct the writer speaks also of marginal glosses and of leaves that have fallen out from his original (pūrvāyārisa, pūrvādarśa). Since these words too are very corrupt, they are not to be ascribed to the writer of the present MS., which is well written to say the least, but to an earlier scribe, whose comments have always been copied together with the text.

A statement in Sanskrit, of not less peculiar nature, but handed down in a very corrupt state, is found at the end of the fourth ajjhaya, and is directed, not against the condition of the text, but against its contents. According to this statement Haribhadrasūri had declared that it was impossible for him to believe some of the wonderful accounts contained in the text. [457] The writer first asserts that this scepticism of Haribhadrasūri has reference solely to a few of these statements and not to the entire fourth ajjh. or to the other ajjh. This scepticism, he says, was caused by the fact that in aṅgas 3, 4 and in upāṅgas 3, 4 nothing was said of these matters, "na kathamchid idam āchakhyē yathā." We must refer yathā to what follows, and regard the words as a kind of citation from ajjh. 4. The latter, however, does not suit the sense, which amounts to this:—cave-dwellers are able to undergo hardships for a year. The meaning of the very obscure words at the end appears to be that since this sūtram according to ancient tradition is an ārsham, and in this śrutasādhya there are contained many excellent "gaṇadharoktāni vādavachanāni," it is the conclusion of the writer that there is no occasion for unbelief even as regards these remarkable statements.⁸⁷ The great Haribhadrasūri⁸⁸ is undoubtedly referred to here, [458] who must have played an important rôle at the date of this remark of the copyist, to whom the polemic appeared as a bitter necessity.

The wretched condition of the text is perhaps to be ascribed to the fact that the authority of the mahānīśthasūtra found many opponents even among the Jains themselves. That the text is corrupt is manifested externally first of all in the imperfect tradition as regards its division. According to a special statement⁸⁹ in the commencement of the third ajjh., after v. 3,

⁸⁶ mahānīśthasūyaskandhassa padhamam ajjhayanam salluddharanam nāma || 1 || ēyassa ya kulhiyadōsē na dāyavvō suaharēhiṃ | kiṃ tu jō ohēva ēyassa pūrvāyārisō āsi, tatthēva kattha ya silōgō katthai silōgaddham katthai payakkharām kattham ekikharapanṭiyā katthai pattayaputthiyam ("marginal notes"?) kaḃ bē tinni pannāni ēva ghāi (?) bahu gaṇesha (gaṇtha?) parigaliyam ti.

⁸⁷ atra chaturthādhyayanē bahavah siddhāntikāh kēchid ilāpakānna (?) samyak sūdhayēty (?) ēvintair aśraddadhānair asmākam api na samyak śraddhānam ity āha Haribhadrasūrih; na punaḥ sarvam ēvā 'dam chaturthādhyayanam anyāni vā 'dhyayanāni asyai 'va katipayai(?) parimitair ālāpakair aśraddhānam ity arthah; yataḥ sthāna-samavāya-jivābhigama-prajñāpanādishu na kathamchid idam āchakhyē, yathā | prēti (?) samāpas-thānam asti, taḃ (?) guhāvāsinaḥ tu manujān, teshu cha paramadharmikānāṃ punaḥ punaḥ saptsāstavarīn yāvā upapattē, teshāṃ cha tair dārunair vajrasilāgharattasāmpūṭair gūlitanāṃ paripīḍyamānānāṃ api samvatsaram yāvā prāparyāpattir na bhavati 'ti; vjiddhavādas tu punar yathāvad idam ārsham sūtram, vikṛitir na tāvad atra pratishṭā, prabhūts chā 'tra śrutasādhā arthāḥ sushṭv apīsayēna (?) sātīsayāni gaṇadharoktāni vāda(see p. 455n)vachanāni, tad ēvaṃ sthītē na kiñchid āsāmkantam.

⁸⁸ See pp. 371, 372. In Jinadattasūri's gaṇadharasādhyaśata, v. 55, 114 payaraṇas are ascribed to him; and Sarvarājagani cites in the scholiast the following works: pañchavastūka upadēśapadapañchāścā 'śhaka shōḍaśaka lōkatat(t)vanirpaya dharmavimbu lōkabindu yōgadrishtisamuchhaya darsanaseptatikā nānāchitraka vṛiṇamithiyātvamañthana pañchasūtraka saṃskṛitātmanuśāsana saṃskṛitachaitryavamañdanabhāṣya anēkāntajayapatākā 'nēkāntapadapravēśaka paralōkasiddhi dharmalobhasiddhi śāstravārttīsamuchhayaśāstraprakaraṇāṃ, tātha āśvāyākaritī daśavaikālika vṛiḍadvitī laghuṛitī pīḍaniryuktivṛitī jīvābhigamaprajñāpanōpāṅgavṛitī pañchavastūkavṛitī anēkāntajayapatākāvṛitī chaitryavamañdanavṛitī anuyōgadvāravṛitī namdivṛitī saṃgraha-pīvṛitī kaṣṭrasamāsavṛitī śāstravārttīsamuchhayaṛitī arhaḥhrīhōḍāmaṇi Samarādityacharita kathākōśā-dīśāstrāṇāṃ. Not so complete are the statements in the Vichārāmrītasamgraha which contains, however, a large number of the names. In the Vic. H.'s death is placed (§ 8 begin.) in the year 1050 after Vira.

⁸⁹ Probably in four śryās, though the metre or rather the text itself is very difficult to make out. The last verse reads:—nikhittavibhittapāṇēṇāṃ saṃghattēṇāṃ imē mahānīśtha(m) | varasuyakkhamādhārā vottavvāṃ cha āuttapagāṇēṇāṃ (?) ti || In the preceding verses the word ambilē is found three times: tatē sōlāsa uddēśē atṭha tatthēva ambilē | jarā taṃ itam chaṭṭthē vipamāhamāmi (!) 'ohhāmi yambilē || dassa, chhaṭṭhē dō, sattamē tinni, aṭṭhamā 'bilē dassa |; this is probably a vocative to ambilē, "little mother," and to be explained in the same way as suṃdari! in painna 7 (see p. 442).

(a statement that perhaps did not belong to the text originally) the mahānīś. consists of 8 ajjhayaṇas, each of which contains a certain number of uddesas, which is stated. But in our MS. there is no trace whatsoever of any uddesas. In the first ajjh. there are between the beginning and the end some §§ numbers (31, 33, and 16, 17 for which 36, 37 are to be substituted), [459] and at the end the number 49. These numbers do not, however, refer to uddesa sections, since these are generally of greater extent, as is proved in the case of our text from the number of udd. ascribed to ajjh. 2—7. We have no statement of the kind in the case of ajjh. 1. These numbers are nine for 2, sixteen for 3, eight for 4, ten for 5, two for 6, three for 7, ten for 8. Of the eight ajjhayaṇas only the first six are specially distinguished, four having special names, though only those ascribed to the first two ajjh. are in harmony with the contents. The sixth ajjh. closes on f. 70^a; the remainder is characterized at the close (96^b) as : piiyā, perhaps biiyā, dvitīyā, chāliyā, so that two chāliyā chapters are here indicated,⁹⁰ which, if added to the 6 ajjh., gives the desired number 8. In this faulty condition of the MS. it is worth while to note the statements of the three sāmācārīs in reference to the mahān. Āvi. treats of this subject (see pp. 447, 448) in discussing the chhēaggantha, and states that there were 8 ajjh. with 83 uddesas. The first ajjhayaṇam had then no divisions of this kind and was ēgasaram; the second had 9, the third and fourth 16 each, the fifth 12, the sixth 4, the seventh 6, the eighth 20. The difference between this account and the information to be drawn from the MS. is very great indeed. (See above.) Svi. and V., on the other hand (see p. 448), separate the mahānīśham from the other chhēda texts, and treat, at the conclusion, of the jōgavihi of the sacred texts after the pañnagavihi. [460] They too agree with Āvi. as regards the number of ajjh. and udd. The seventh and eighth ajjh. are expressly called by V. chāliārūva (donnichūlāō, v. 64). Forty-three days are necessary to learn the mahān., tēyālisāē diṇēhim ajjhayaṇasamatī, but as two days are requisite for suyakkhamdhassa samuddesa and for aṇuṇṇā, the total number is 45. The chhēdas. 1, 3—5 required together only 30 days. See page 448.

A statement in Wilson Sel. W. I, 341 (ed. Rost) is of particular interest : — “Vajrasvāmī⁹¹ instituted the Mahānīśtha-sect;” and of equal interest are the remarks of Rājendra Lāla Mitra (p. 227) in reference to three different recensions (vāchanā) of the Mahānīśtha. The question which is proposed in the introduction of chapter 22 of the Vichārāmṛitasamgraha substantiates the belief that the Mahānīśtha is tolerably old. This question is : — how is it to be explained that the prāyaścitta prescribed in the Mahānīśtha is not practised? The answer to this includes chhēdas. 1, 3, 5, and reads : — adhunā maṇḍasattvaiḥ kalpavyavahāranīśthamahānīśthā dīnām ēkatarasyā 'pi grāṇthasyā 'bhiprāyēṇa prāyaścittāni yathā chaddoḍham (? 'vasoḍhum) na śakyam tē atas tē sarvagachheshu jītavavyavahārēṇa prāyaścittān(y) anucharamto dṛīyam tē.

The first mention of the mahānīśham, of which I am aware, is found in the enumeration of the anaṅgapaviṭṭha texts in the Nandī etc., where the schol. on N. explains the word as follows : — nīśthāt param, yat grāṇthārthābhyām mahattaram tam mahānīśtham. [461] We have already mentioned (p. 445) that the gachhāyāra states that it is based upon the mahān. as its source.

The introductory words are the same as in āṅga 1 etc. : suyām mē āusaṁ, tēṇaṁ bhagavayā ēvaṁ akkkāyam, and each of the ajjh. closes correspondingly with ti bēmi. Besides this, there is nothing which directly savours of antiquity with the single exception that the dialogue form between the bhagavant (who is addressed with (sē) bhagavaṁ and not with (sē) ṇaṁ bhamtē) and Indrabhūti (Gōyamā!) is retained. This form, however, ill suits the introductory formula by which the whole is attributed to the bhagavant himself.

The name of the text occurs shortly after the introduction, and is accompanied by laudatory epithets. This fact, together with the epithet mahā⁹² in the name, makes it probable

⁹⁰ The conclusion of the first chāliā is not directly marked off, but is to be placed on 80^b, where a section closes with bēmi.

⁹¹ Nominally 584 Vira, see pp. 219, 251, cf. Āvaśy. 8, 41 fg. Gaṇadharasārdhaś. v. 28 fg. In reference to the statement above, cf. pp. 463n and 464.

that it is of later date. It had need of a special sanction because of its secondary character. The words are : pavara-vara-mahānisihasuyakkhamdha(m) ssuyānusārēṇaṃ tiviham — but there follows no three-fold division.

The first book is entitled salluddharaṇaṃ and treats of the most various kinds of salla, śalya. The repeated references to the savvaṃgōvaṃga are worth our notice; whence the existence of the uvaṃga at the time of its composition — see above, p. 373 — is *eo ipso* clear. Then follows the figure of the useful co-partnership of the lame with the blind man which is specially emphasized : — hayaṃ nāṇaṃ kiyāhīṇaṃ, hayaṃ annāṇaṃ kiyā | pāsantō paṃgulō daddhō dhāvamāṇō a aṃdhaṃ || . . aṃdhō ya paṃgū ya vaṇē samichchā tē sampattā nagaraṃ pavittā ||. Furthermore [462] stress is laid upon reverence (vaṃdē, vaṃdiyyā) for pictures (paḍimā) and temples (chēṭṭa, chēṭṭālaya). A special formula seems to have been made use of in this connection, an enigmatical treatment of the letters of which occurs⁹² after the fashion of the treatment of *a u m (om)* in the Upanishads and in similar formulas in the tantra ritual. This entire subject was a riddle to the copyist — cf. p. 456 — and so it remains for us. After the real conclusion of the work, in an addition, a similar subject is treated of in like manner merely by means of single letters.

Book II. is entitled kammavivāyaṇaṃ, perhaps karmavipācaka (cf. pp. 270, 280, 335). At the end is found an obscure statement which perhaps has reference to ajjh. 1, 2 and which reads : ēsīm tu doṇhaṃ ajjhayaṇaṇaṃ vihiṃ puvvagēṇaṃ savvasāmaṇaṃ vattēhīṇaṃ ti (?).

Books III. and IV., without specific titles, are composed almost entirely in prose, and treat especially of the kusāla. It is noticeable that in Book III. frequent reference is paid to the duvālasaṃgaṃ suyaṇaṇaṃ and the saṃgōvaṃga duvālasaṃgasamudda. The commencement with sāmāya is retained (cf. p. 243), and the suyaṇaṇaṃ is then characterized as sāmāya-m-āi lōgabinduśāgara (sāra!) payyavasānaṃ (p. 245). [463] We find in the text the following statements which are very characteristic as regards the origin and history of Book III. : tattha tattha bahuṇhiṃ suyaḥarēhiṃ sammiliṇaṃ saṃgōvaṃgaduvālasaṃgāu suyasamuddāu anna-anna-uvāṃgūsuva(kkha)mdha-ajjhayaṇa-uddēsaṃgaṇaṃ samuchchinēṇaṃ kiṃchiṃ kiṃchiṃ samvayyaṇaṇaṃ etthaṃ lihiyaṃ ti, na uṇa sakavvakayaṃ (svakāvyaḥkṛitaṃ) ti. This is an example of the saying *qui s'excuse s'accuse*. It is more probable that the above is a production of the author himself than that it emanates from the hand of a copyist who is inclined to doubt.

Book IV. contains a legend of two brothers, Sumati and Nāila,⁹³ in which we may observe an occasional reference (in Sanskrit!) to an old elucidation (!) of āṅga 10 : śeṣhaṃ tu praśna-vyākaraṇavṛiddhavihāraṇād avasēyaṃ. — Whoever, bhikṣu or bhikṣuṇī, should praise the adherents of hostile systems or schismatics (parapāsaṃdāṇaṃ paṣaṃsaṃ kareyya, jē yā vi ṇaṃ niṇhagāṇaṃ p. k.), whoever speaks in favour of the schismatics (niṇhagāṇaṃ aṇukūlaṃ bhāsēyyā), visits their temples (niṇh. āyayaṇaṃ pavisiyya), studies their texts (niṇh. gaṃthasattha payakkharaṃ vā parūvēyyā), or follows their ordinances (niṇh. saṃkaliē kāyakilēsāiē tavēi vā samjamēi vā jāṇēi vā vinnāvēi vā suēi vā paḍivvēi vā avimuhasuddhapaṇisāmayyagāē salāhēyyā), his fate will be as disastrous as that of Sumati, sa vi ṇaṃ paramāhammiēsuṃ uvavayyēyya jahā Sumatī. The hate against the heterodox and schismatics is here so bitter, [464] that the conjecture is not too bold if we assume that the heterodox and schismatics had at that time got possession of the text of this book, see pp. 293, 368.

Book V., duvālasaṃgasuyaṇaṇassa ṇavaṭṭiyasāra (?), mentions the duvālasaṃga, but

⁹² amāṇa | a | mafi | kaṭṭha ava | addhaṇa | amaa um | ṇ am | up ay | āṇ u | s āraṇ ṇa am | ā um ṇ | amāṇ | sa am bh i | ṇ nas u | i | ṇ amāṇ | khaṇ rē ā | sabaddha ṇ | a u m | ṇ am u etc. — In a similar manner (each of the single consonants having virāma) we find the mantra composed which the Vidhipapā cites in mentioning the āyariyapayaṭṭhāvaṇavihi and uvajjhāyapaṇṇa. These, however, commence with a | u | m | ; cf. the Upanishads. Have we here an example of the māyakkharā? see page 281 (with note) and page 350.

⁹³ In the thūrāvali of Kalpas, one of the four scholars of Vajra (svāmin), p. 460, or of Vajrasēna, is called by this name. He was the founder of a school which bore his name. Bhūadinna, the scholar of Nāgajjuna, was from the Nāilakula; see v. 44 of the Thūrāvali in the Nandis.

merely in a general way. It treats especially of the relation between the teacher (guru) and scholar (śiṣa), of the āyāra (gachhāyāra, see p. 445), and aṇāyāra.

Book VI., giyaṭṭhavihāra (see pp. 437, 450), treats of the pachhitta prāyaśchitta, and contains a legend of a teacher Bhadda and the ayyiā (āryikā) Rayyā. The mention of the dasapuvvi in the introduction brings *eo ipso* the date of its composition down to a period subsequent to that of Bhadrabāhu, the last chaturdaśapūrvīn, and to that of Vajra, the last daśapūrvīn. See pp. 219, 460.

Books VII., VIII., which (see p. 459) are characterized as two chūliyās, a name which *per se* marks them as a secondary addition, treat likewise of the pachhitta, and, in fact, in such great detail, that the words kim bahuṇā,⁸⁴ together with the formal frame-work enclosing them, are occasionally repeated several times in immediate succession. Shortly before the close these words occur again. A legend of the daughter of Suyyasivi in Avanti plays a very prominent part in these books.

The solemn adjuration (found also in another passage) to save this sūtram from any damage, is another indication of its secondary origin:—jayā ṇaṃ Gōyamā! iṇam-ō pachhitta-suttaṃ voḥchhiyyihii tayā ṇaṃ chaṇḍāichchā-gaha[465]rikkha-tāragā ṇaṃ satta ahōrattē ya nō viphuriyyā, imassa ṇaṃ voḥhēdē Gōyamā! kaṇṇasaṃjamassa abhāvō.

To the conclusion (samattaṃ mahānisīhasuyakkhaṇḍhaṃ) are joined the reverential invocations to the 24 titthaṇkaras, the tittha, the suyadēvayā, the suyakēvalī, all the sāhu, siddhai to the bhagavānt arahamt. Then follow the incomprehensible separate aksharas etc., mentioned on page 462. The actual conclusion is formed by the statement concerning the extent of the whole book (4504 ślōkas): chattāri saḥassāṃ paṃcha sayāṃ taḥēva chattāri! chattāri (again!) silōgā viya mahānisīhammi pāṇaṃ ||

The mahānisīham is indisputably much younger than the nisīham, and is almost six times its size. It is noteworthy that this sūtram, just as the fourth chhēdas, according to its own statements (see above and pp. 456, 458, 461) receives suyakkhaṇḍha, śrutaskandha as an addition to its name. This is a title that is used in the case of the aṅgas for larger divisions of an aṅga. But in the case of aṅgas 3—5, 7—10, up. 8—12 the expression also holds good for the whole and not merely a part. There is no commentary, as in the case of the nisīha, with the exception of the chūṇi. See above, p. 445, for the origin of the gachhāyāraṃ from the mahānisīha.

FOLKTALES OF HINDUSTAN.

BY WILLIAM CROOKE, C.S.

No. 1. — *The Prince and his faithful friend, the son of the Wazir.*¹

There was once a king who had a son, and his wazir also had a son. Both were of the same age and were great friends. One day both of them planned to go and see their wives. So they went and told their fathers. Their fathers objected to their going, but they would not be dissuaded, and secretly mounted their horses and went off. The king's son first reached his father-in-law's house, where he was treated with great respect, and at night his bed was placed on the top of the roof, but the wazir's son slept below. At midnight the prince's wife got up and dressed herself in her finest clothes, put some sweetmeats and fruit in a tray and came down the stairs². The prince was asleep, but the wazir's son woke and watched her going out. Then he followed her, and what did he see? She went to a *faqīr*, who beat her soundly with a whip, and said: "Why are you so late?" She replied: "I was delayed because my husband

⁸⁴ The words, however, occur Aup. § 48.

¹ A folktale recorded from the lips of Mahtābō, an old Musalmān cook-woman of Mirzāpur, and literally translated.

² There is an incident like this, in the *Arabian Nights*, of the Princess who loved the negro.

came to-day." The *faqir* answered: "Well! Go, cut off your husband's head and bring it to me. Then I will be assured that you love me." So she went, cut off her husband's head and brought it to the *faqir*. Then the *faqir* beat her again, and said: "Since you do not belong to your husband, whose are you? Go, and never come near me again." Then she took her husband's trunk and head and placed them near the *wazir's* son. He rose, tied them up in a cloth, put them on his horse and rode off to his wife's house. There he was treated with great respect and exactly the same events occurred. For at midnight his wife got up and went out. He took his sword, followed her and saw her go to a *faqir*. He asked her why she was late, and she answered that her husband had come and delayed her. On hearing this the *faqir* was greatly pleased, and said: "I will give you whatever you ask." She said: "I will consult my father and mother, and then say what I want." So she went and consulted them. They said: "God has given us all we want. Ask your husband: perhaps he may want something." Then she asked her husband and he replied: "My friend has had his head cut off. I wish him to be restored to life." So the lady went again to the *faqir* and asked him to restore her husband's friend to life.

The *faqir* gave her some water, and told her to instruct her husband to sprinkle it on the head and trunk of his friend and he would recover. So this was done, and when the prince's head was joined on to his trunk and the water sprinkled over him he revived, and said: "I have had a fine sleep. What time is it?" But when he looked round he said: "This is not the place where I went to sleep." Then the *wazir's* son told him the whole story. The prince thanked his friend, and they stayed there.

Some days afterwards they both went out to hunt, and being tired out the prince became very thirsty. The *wazir's* son seated him under a tree, and went to search for water. With difficulty he found a tank and brought some water. When the prince drank he said: "This water is very sweet. I want to see the place where you got it." So the *wazir's* son took him there. But on the way he recollected that on the edge of the tank he had seen the image³ of a very lovely woman, and he thought: "Perhaps he may want her." So he excused himself by saying the place was very dirty. But the prince insisted on going there, so the *wazir's* son could not help taking him there, but he tried not to take him in that particular direction. However, the prince would walk all round the place, and when he saw the image, he said: "I will never leave this till you marry me to the original of this image." The *wazir's* son remonstrated, but in vain. Finally, the *wazir's* son had to promise to search for the woman, and told the prince to sleep in a tree there until he returned. When night fell, the prince ascended a tree on the edge of the tank, and at midnight a snake came out, who had a jewel in his mouth. When he touched the water with the jewel, it all dried up; and in the middle of the tank a door appeared. Then the snake put down his jewel, and by its brilliancy the whole place was illuminated. Then the snake began to drink the dew. When morning approached he again touched the tank with the jewel and the water returned.

In the morning the prince descended from the tree. Then the prince prepared an iron trap and a rope, and again at night climbed up the tree. At midnight the snake appeared and put down his jewel under the tree, where the prince was. When he had gone a little distance, lapping up the dew, the prince put the iron trap down on the jewel, and the moment its brilliancy was obscured the snake came up in a rage, and began to beat his head with such violence against the trap, that at last he died. Then the prince came down, secured the jewel and entered the tank. The water gave way before him; so he opened the door and entered.

When he came into the first room, what did he see but a bed of silver and over it a coverlet of silver, and on it was sleeping a silver fairy (*chāndī kī ek parī*). She was extremely lovely, and there were two necklaces of silver — one at her feet and the other at her head. These he took up and examined and put them down, but by mistake he placed the necklaces in the

³ The word used is *taswir*.

⁴ Or ruby fairy (*la'l parī*).

reverse order : and as he did so the fairy got up and said : "Why have you killed my master the snake, and dared to enter here ?" The prince answered : "Yes, I have killed him. Had you killed him, you would have been my mistress."

Then the prince went into another room and saw a golden fairy sleeping on a golden couch. She was even lovelier than the silver fairy. Her necklaces also he displaced and she woke. She asked him the same question and he gave the same answer.

Then the prince entered the third room and there he saw the red fairy⁴ (*lāl parī*) asleep : and she was even lovelier than the other two. Her necklaces he also displaced. She also awoke, asked the same question and got the same answer.

Then he went into the fourth chamber and there he saw the jewel fairy (*javāhīr parī*) and she was the queen of all, and it was her image which was set up at the tank. When the prince saw her loveliness he was confounded and bit his finger (*dānt se unglā dabāā*). The fairy was greatly surprised how a human being managed to get there. So she asked him : "How did you find me out, and how did you manage to kill my master the snake, by a blast of whose breath a man will die ?" So the prince told her how he had seen her image, and how the moment he saw it he had fallen in love with it. "I made a vow," said he, "that I would never leave this place until I married the woman, of whom this was the image." So he described to her the end of the snake, and she said : "We are all slaves of him who is master of the jewel," and she married the prince and they lived together.

One day the prince and the fairies went for a walk on the edge of the tank, when suddenly they saw an army approaching and retired into the tank. But as she ran in the jewel fairy dropped one of her shoes on the ground.⁵

Now, there was a king of another land, and he had a son, who had only one eye.⁶ He had gone out hunting and by chance came to the tank and saw the fairy's shoe. He took it and went home, and threw himself on his couch and refused to eat or drink. Then his father thought he was sick and asked him what was the matter with him. So the one-eyed prince told him the story, and said : "Until I marry the owner of the shoe I will neither eat nor drink." Finally his father induced him to get up, on the promise that he would send a wise old woman to trace the fairy. So the king called all the wise women, and asked each what her powers were. The first said : "I can make a hole in the sky." The king said : "That is no use." The second said : "I can put a patch in the sky." "You are no use," said the king. The third said : "I can neither make a hole in the sky nor patch it, but if you want any particular woman I can get her by fraud and trickery." "You are the person I want, and I will reward you nobly if you bring this fairy."

So the wise woman made a flying bed (*urān khatōlā*) and came to the tank. There she stayed some days until one evening the fairies came out, and when she saw them the wise woman began to weep. Then the jewel fairy asked her what was the matter. She replied : "Why are you asking me? Don't you know me. I am your family barberess (*nām*). Your mother was exactly like you, but she is dead, and you never think of me, and now I am dying of hunger." The jewel fairy believed her, and in pity took her home and entertained her.

When the old woman had been there some time, one day, when the prince was asleep, she asked the fairy where his life was — whether in his heart or in something else.⁷ The fairy replied : "Formerly it was in his heart, but since he has become master of this jewel his life has come into that." Then she had to go into the other room and the old woman snatched up the jewel. She went to the jewel fairy and found her feeding her parrot Hīraman. So she said to the fairy : "Let us take the parrot out for an airing." She agreed, and they went

⁵ We are now embarked on a variant of Cinderella.

⁶ *Kānd*, always an evil sign in India.

⁷ There is an incident like this in *Old Deccan Days*, Seventeen Bai's necklace held her life. [For many other instances of the life index, see *Wide Awake Stories*, p. 404, ff. Ed.]

outside the tank. There the flying couch was placed, and the old woman asked the fairy to sit on it. At first she objected, but finally agreed, and the old woman flew off with her, and while she was in the air threw into the sea the jewel, which contained the life of the prince. But, as it fell into the ocean, Hiranman, the parrot, was watching her.

When they reached the king's palace he was much pleased, and his one-eyed son was delighted and wanted to marry the fairy straight off. But she replied: "Take care! this old woman has stolen me by deceit from my husband, and if you say a word to me now I will burn you up into ashes. But this I will do. If any one comes to claim me within six months, I will go with him. If not I will marry you." Then she began from that day to give daily alms (*saddā bart*) to the poor.

When the wazir's son went to search for the woman, with whose image the prince had fallen in love he went wandering about through woods and lands and cities. One day he met a demon (*dēd*) and they became great friends; and the demon promised to accompany him and assist him in his enterprise. Soon after they met a monkey, and him also they took as their companion. Six months all but passed and the jewel fairy was distributing alms daily, but no one appeared to rescue her, and she was forced to agree to marry the one-eyed prince. On the last day the wazir's son appeared by chance, and he came to get alms, because he had become quite destitute. When he saw the jewel fairy he took out a picture (*tusvīr*) of the lady's image and examined it. When the fairy saw him looking at the picture she took him aside, and he told her the whole story. She told him that she was married to the prince, with whom she was well pleased, and that the old woman had stolen her away by fraud. Then the wazir's son told her to prepare to escape with him, that he would arrange to burn the city and destroy the king's people that night, and that she was to keep the flying couch, on which she had been brought, ready.

Then he went to the demon and the monkey and told them that he intended to carry off the fairy. So he instructed the demon to stand at the gate and kill all that passed, and he told the monkey to go, when an hour or two of night had passed, to the shop of a confectioner (*halwādi*) and take a burning stick from there and set the city on fire. So he went and sat near the place where the fairy was staying, the demon took his post at the gate, and the monkey fired the city. When the people rushed to the gate in confusion the demon began to devour them. Then the wazir's son climbed up to the upper storey.

So he carried off the fairy and the old woman on the flying couch, and as they passed over the ocean the parrot Hiranman dived down and recovered the jewel; and the wazir's son dropped the wicked old woman into the sea. When they came to the tank he left the flying couch outside, and went into the underground palace. When he placed the jewel near the prince he woke and said: "I have had a good sleep." But when his glance fell on the wazir's son he was sore displeased and wanted to drive him out. But when the fairy told him how the old woman had abducted her, and how she had been recovered by the wazir's son, he embraced his friend, wept over him and thanked him.

They stayed there some days, and the prince proposed to go home. When preparations were made they came out of the tank and there saw an old woman, who was weeping with one eye and laughing with the other. The wazir's son asked who she was: and he signed to the king's son to go on ahead. Then the wazir's son asked why she was both weeping and laughing. Then she said: "I am weeping because on the road by which the prince is going there is a tree, and as he passes under it the thickest branch will fall on him and he will be crushed to death. Hence he ought to avoid this tree. Then, when he comes into a certain forest a tiger will charge out and carry off him and his horse. Hence the horses should be sent alone and the tiger will carry off one of them. Then, when he arrives at the palace the iron gate will fall on him. Hence the gate should be knocked down before he approaches it and replaced by a gate of flowers. Then, when the prince sits to eat with his father there will be a great thorn in

the first fruit he touches, which will stick in his throat and kill him, but he will escape if any one snatches the fruit from his hands and flings it away. Then the first night that he sleeps in his father's palace a snake will come down from the ceiling and bite him and his wife, so that they will die. But if any one were to sit in the room and kill the snake when he appears, both the prince and his wife will live many days. But if you speak a word of this to them you will be turned into stone and will remain stone until the prince and princess dash their eldest son upon you; but when they fling the child at you speak not a word. But behind the palace is a tree and on this a large winged bird (*garpankh*) has built its nest: take some of its dung, rub it on the child and it will come to life again."

So the *wazir's* son left the old woman and went to the prince, and they all started together. On the way they came to the tree and the *wazir's* son prevented the prince from approaching it. Suddenly a branch came crashing down, which would certainly have crushed him, and the prince thanked the *wazir's* son for saving his life. Further on the *wazir's* son kept the prince away from the horses, and lo! a tiger rushed out and carried off one of them. Again the prince thanked him for saving his life. When they approached the palace the *wazir's* son asked the prince to wait a little, and he would go ahead and announce his arrival. He went ahead and removed the iron gate of the palace and replaced it with a gate of flowers. Then he invited the prince to follow him. When the prince saw a gate of flowers instead of the iron gate he was sore displeased and said: "You have caused my father great loss." But when the gate fell down he saw that he again owed his life to his faithful friend, and promised in future to obey his advice.

His father was delighted to see him again. So, when the prince sat down to eat with his father, the *wazir's* son stood on his right, and as he tried to eat the first morsel his friend knocked it out of his hand. Then the prince was wroth and called to one of his attendants to seize him. But the *wazir's* son said: "First look at the morsel you were about to eat:" and lo! it was found to contain a deadly thorn. So the prince again asked his pardon,

When the prince and princess retired to their chamber the *wazir's* son remained sitting outside, and when it was near midnight he took a sword and entered the room, and immediately a poisonous snake descended from the roof and approached the bed of the prince. Then the *wazir's* son cut the snake in pieces, but two drops of the blood fell on the face of the fairy princess and she awoke, and as she awoke, this roused the prince, who raised a sword and would have slain the son of the *wazir*. But he shewed him the dead snake under the bed. So he again begged the *wazir's* son to pardon him, and asked: "How did you learn about all these events?" So the *wazir's* son said: "All your dangers are now passed; and you will live in safety. But do not ask me how I acquired this knowledge, or you will repent it." But the prince said: "You shall not leave this until you explain the matter." So the *wazir's* son perforce had to tell all he learnt from the old woman: but as he went on with the story, so he began to turn into stone; and when he had turned into stone as far as his breast the prince began to weep and said: "I have been very careless. Don't go on with the story." He replied: "What is the use of my living on in this state?" If you wish to revive me again you must dash your first child at me." So saying he turned into stone, and the prince never ceased lamenting him until the princess had her first child. Then he threw the baby at the *wazir's* son, and he became a man again, and without saying a word to any one he went off and got a piece of the dung of the large winged bird, which he rubbed on the baby, whereupon it revived and they all lived happily ever after.⁸

⁸ [I have never read a stronger instance than this tale in support of my old argument, that in the incidents and not in the thread of a story is to be found the true folklore tradition. Our friend Mahtâb, the cook, has jumbled together, in the most interesting fashion to the 'folklorist,' an extraordinary number of incidents properly belonging to different classes of tales. There is not an idea in it that could not easily be found in the various Indian tales reported already in these columns, but the general thread of the story is the well-worn theme of the friend who saves the hero at the risk of his own life. — ED.]

MISCELLANEA.

A NOTE ON THE TASHON AND BAUNGSHÉ CHINS, WITH REMARKS ON THEIR MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND AGRICULTURE.¹

Races:—Beginning from the north, we have first the Kanhòs or Kantòn-Kanhòs, who inhabit the hills immediately south of Manipûr.

South and south-east of these come the Siyins and Sagyilaings, while farther south lies the great Tashôn country, lying in the hills drained by the Nankapè River south of Manipûr and extending to the Tyau, the north-eastern tributary of the Kôladain; farther south lies the Baungshé country inhabited by the Hâkâ, Tlantlang, and Yôkwâ tribes, and containing, besides these, many independent villages stretching down to 22° 10' of latitude.

My work has lain entirely in the Tashôn and Baungshé country, and it is about these that I propose to make a few remarks.

Tashôns.—The capital of the Tashôn country is Falam, a village of about 400 houses. Here live Sônpêk, Mânlon, Kalyân, Bwêmôn, Winsau, and the other Chiefs who rule the Tribe. Falam is situated on the north-west face of the Balumà range, and looks down into the Nankapè River and across its deep valley on to the steep slopes of the northern side, where many villages can be seen nestling on the hillsides.

During our visit to Falam the chiefs showed the greatest reluctance to give information about their country or its resources. Moreover, they pretended to be unable to give us a list of their villages, and we had to be content with knowing their boundaries, which they said were the following:—

On the North.—The Siyin, Sagyilaing, and Kanhò Country.

On the South.—The Yôkwâ, Hâkâ, and Tlantlang Tracts.

On the East.—The Myitpâ Valley and the Yômàlung, west of Minlêdaung.

On the West.—The Tyau River.

For the reasons given above, we could get little information regarding their manners and customs, but, from what we could see, it was abundantly clear that some sort of law and order prevails, and that there is considerable security for life and property. This last was evidenced by the fact that in the Karôn Laiyò Valley we came upon single homesteads built here and there like

farmhouses; and, except at Minkin, which is a frontier village, there was no attempt at stockades, except such as had been hastily erected near Falam for our reception.

We could also see that the authority of the chiefs, who seem to act collectively and not individually, is very much respected and feared.

The country, so far as we could see, seemed to be thickly populated, considering the enormous areas which it is necessary to cultivate in order to produce sufficient food. Indeed, I should think that, unless improved methods of agriculture are introduced, many of the Tashôns will be obliged to seek fresh fields before many years. Nowhere in the Tashôn country did I observe any virgin forest, except small patches near the tops of high hills. Elsewhere the country is covered with small-growth trees, shrubs, and grass, which are cut down every three or four years and the land cultivated, as other clearings become exhausted through continuous cropping.

It struck me that there was a greater struggle for existence in the Tashôn than in the Baungshé country, and that this probably accounted for the greater love of order which prevails. Moreover, the people have little time to give to raiding, and it is a curious fact that there are no slaves in the Tashôn country. Altogether, to a casual observer, the Tashôns are much in advance of the other neighbouring tribes, and I have great hopes that, as their country opens up and their people begin to find that money and food can be easily obtained by labouring in Burma, we shall get them to work on our roads and other public works.

Baungshés.—The Baungshés are known as Poi to the tribes on the Bengal border. They are also called Poi by the Tashôns. The term Baungshé is a Burmese word which simply means "long turban." I could see no difference between the head-dresses of the Hâkâs and the Tashôns, but to the Burmese the word Baungshé has a well-defined meaning, and does not include the Tashôns, who are known by the latter name only. I have already defined the area inhabited by the Baungshés, by which term I propose to denominate them.

Baungshé Language.—The language spoken by the Baungshés resembles that of the Tashôns in so many respects, that both appear to me to be simply dialects of the same language. Even amongst the Baungshés themselves there is some

¹ Printed originally as a Government paper, by the Chief Commissioner of Burma. The notes were made by Mr. D. Ross, Political Officer in the Chin Hills.

diversity of tongue, but the differences are dialectic, and are never so great that an intelligent man from Hákà could not find his way about any part of the Baungshê country.

To the south of the Baungshês, between them and the Chinbòks, there are a number of large villages, whose inhabitants are said to speak a tongue which is not understood either by Baungshês or Chinbòks. These people dwell about the headwaters of the Myitpà, and seldom or never come down to Burma. Consequently little is known about them, but I hope it will be possible to study them soon.

Origin of the Baungshês:—To return to the Baungshês and their origin. I have been unable to meet anyone who can throw even a legendary light on their history beyond five or six generations.

This is not hard to explain, when we remember that they have no written language and no means of recording dates. The Chin has no names for the months or the days of the week, and no division of time except into the wet, cold, and hot seasons, and the changes of the moon, day and night, and morning, noon, and evening.

The headmen of Hákà, while knowing nothing of their origin, say that all the other villages of the circle are offshoots from the parent village.

Religion.—The Chins are spirit-worshippers, and offerings are made to the spirits who control their destinies. The *nàts* (spirits) have each a local habitation and a name. There are five altogether near Hákà, and of these the greatest of all and the most powerful is the Róng Nát, whose home is in the thick forest on the Róngtiang Peak. After the Róng Nát comes the Mwê Nát, whose favourite haunt is the neighbourhood of a large tree below Hákà village. Other minor *nàts* are the Hêngtàn Ar'man Nát, the K'oring Nát, and the Naurai Nát.

In Hákà there is a high priest, called the Tlang Bwê, without whose presence no sacrifice may be made to the Róng Nát or the Mwê Nát. He it is who makes the incantation over the animal before it is slaughtered. In general the Róng Nát and the Mwê Nát are asked that the rains may be abundant, that sickness and pain may not come amongst the people, that they may be successful against their enemies, &c. These festivals take place at no stated times, but generally once a year. When it is decided to sacrifice to either of these spirits, the whole of the people in the Hákà circle subscribe something towards the purchase of the necessary animal, which is generally a *maiban* or a pig, together with a black hen.

These are killed outside of the village and the head is cut off and roasted on the spot and is eaten by the Tlang Bwê and the people of the village. The rest of the flesh is divided into portions, one for each family, the Tlang Bwê taking two shares.

Sacrifices to the minor spirits can be made without the intervention of the Tlang Bwê. When a man decides to make a sacrifice he hangs up a bunch of green leaves at the entrance to his house, which the neighbours know to be a sign that he is offering to the spirits and, therefore, must not be disturbed.

During the day the person making the offering must not talk to any one, neither may he do any work. For sacrifices of this kind a young cock or a mole suffices.

The office of Tlang Bwê is an hereditary one in Hákà, and some peculiar privileges are attached to it. For instance, if a *maiban* cow anywhere in the Hákà circle outside of the mother village gives birth to a calf, the Tlang Bwê receives a basket of millet or some other grain.

Funeral ceremonies.—The Chins bury their dead in deep graves dug inside the house enclosure. A chief is buried in a sitting posture with his chief's plume on his head and his best clothes on. In cases where a chief leaves no son his gun is buried with him. The funeral, like all other events in a Chin's life, is celebrated with feasting and drinking, tinged with a strain of mourning. If a Chin is killed by enemies, it is not considered lucky to inter his body in the village, and accordingly it is buried outside. I saw an instance of this at Yôkwà, where a new-looking grave was pointed out to us as the burial-place of a man, who a few weeks before had been shot by a patrol west of Gangò.

Laws.—Amongst the Chins certain customs have obtained the force of law, but in general they have no recognized means of enforcing these customs, except in very small matters, and the only real law is the law of might. Adultery is theoretically punishable with death, but the carrying out of the law depends on the social standing of the parties. For example, a chief's son may commit adultery with the wife of a poor man, or of a slave, and he is protected by his position and the influence of his friends. And this is the same in other cases. Theoretically men are punishable, but practically they are seldom punished. A case in point occurred in our own time. Shwêlân, son of Chief Lwê Shàn, in a drunken brawl injured one of his father's servants so badly that he died. Shwêlân then ran away to Aibur, not to escape from justice,

but to escape from the wrath of his father, who had lost a valuable servant. In a few days the father's anger melted away and a younger brother went and called Shwélén, who was received like the prodigal son. After his return it was necessary for him to "wash his hands," to use a Chin metaphor, which consisted in slaying a bullock, of which the whole village partook, and thus the guilt was washed away.

Chiefs.—The Chief or Boi class is a numerous one amongst the Chins. A chief's son is also a chief, and descent from a chief is regarded with as much pride as a lofty lineage in Europe. A Chin, be he ever so dirty or poor, has only to prove his descent from a chief to be at once accorded an honourable position.

In Hâkà there are two principal chiefs, Lwé Shàn and Lyen Mô; but, besides these, there are scores of others, who are related to them, and who claim a voice in the affairs of the tribe. The same may be said of all the other Chin tribes and villages, not only those which are independent, but also those which pay tribute. All the villages in the Hâkà circle pay some tribute to the Hâkà Chiefs, but it is very difficult to find out the exact relations which exist between them. This will be understood, when I explain that the right to levy taxes (I use this term for want of a better) is an hereditary one, and a landlord has the right to subdivide it on his decease. Owing to this subdivision, and the intermarriage of members of one family with those of another in a distant village, the claims to get something are often curiously mixed up. One person has the right to get a pig once a year, another gets a basket of grain, another gets a quarter of any animal slaughtered, and so on.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is practised by the Chins in its rudest forms. The only implements used are small axes, *damás*, and a little hoe. The axe and *damá* are used for felling the jungle, and the hoe for planting the seed and for hoeing up the weeds and grass.

The principal food-grains grown by the Chins are *fang* or millet, *fungvai* or Indian-corn, *mum* or Jacob's tears, *bè* or beans and peas, *farsung* or paddy, *rah* or giant bean. There are ten varieties of millet, three of Indian-corn, four species of legume with many varieties, and three varieties of paddy. The food-staples are *fungvai*, or *fang* with yams. The only fruits cultivated by the Chins are plantains, peaches, figs, oranges, and apples; but strawberries, raspberries, cherries, pears, and plums are found wild. The raspberries are quite equal to those found wild in England, but the other wild fruits are not fit to eat.

The work of the season is commenced by cutting down the jungle and hoeing up the grass and weeds. This is done in December and January, and the clearings are burnt early in March. Seed is sown early in April, when showers may be expected. *Fang* is the first to ripen and begins to be harvested about the middle of July. This is quickly followed by *fungvai*, after which almost immediately come the peas and beans. Sweet potatoes are grown near streams and are obtained throughout the year, but the principal crop is dug in the cold weather. Pumpkins of various kinds, brinjals (*aubergines*), beans, and peas are the only green vegetables grown.

Trade.—Trade amongst the Chins may be divided into two heads, internal and external.

The internal trade is confined to exchanging property, such as guns, knives, cattle, or grain for food or drink; but trade, as such, can hardly be said to exist.

The external trade is somewhat brisker. The articles in most demand are salt, cotton blankets, iron, silk, and gongs. These are purchased or exchanged for money, beeswax, fishing-nets, an occasional elephant's tusk, saltpetre, plantains, chillies.

The Chins have considerable herds of common cattle as well as *maiban*, but they show no disposition to sell them and ask extravagant prices. They are used only for slaughter purposes, the hides being eaten and the horns remaining attached to the head, which is impaled on a post outside the village. Goats are also found at most villages, but never in large numbers. These also are killed and eaten.

Fowls and eggs are largely produced and are sold freely. These, however, are articles of local trade and could not be exported at a profit.

Population.—Tashóns.—I have already stated that the Tashóns were unwilling to afford information about their country, and I am therefore unable to do anything but guess at the population. It is said, but I know not with what authority, that they can collect 10,000 fighting men, which I take to mean that they have 10,000 houses, and, allowing an average of five persons to each house, we thus arrive at a total of 50,000, which I think is not an extravagant estimate.

Hâkas.—The Hâkas possess about 2,500 houses which, at five persons to each house, gives them a total population of 12,500.

Yôkwás.—The Yôkwás, estimated in the same way, have a population of about 3,000.

Tlantlangs.—The Tlantlangs are about 7,500, but about them I am not so certain as about the Yôkwàs and Hâkàs.

Independent Baungshês.—I estimate the independent Baungshê villages south of Yôkwà and Hâkà at 2,500 houses, which, computed as above, gives a population of 12,500.

The totals therefore are—

Tashôns	50,000
Hâkàs	12,500
Yôkwàs	3,000
Tlantlangs	7,500
Independent Baungshês.	12,500
Total ...	<u>85,500</u>

NOTES AND QUERIES.

GOOD AND BAD OMENS IN MADRAS.

If a person comes across the following when starting on a journey, or on a special errand, it is a good omen :— a married woman, a virgin, a prostitute, two Brâhman, the playing of music, any money, fruit, a light, an umbrella, any food, milk, curds, mutton, precious stones, sandalwood, rice, a cow, a bull, an elephant, a horse, a pot full of water, a pot of *tâdâ*, a black monkey, a dog, a deer, a corpse, a royal eagle, any honey, fish, the recital of the *Vêdas*.

But if he comes across any of the following, it is a bad omen :—one or three Brâhman, a widow, any fuel, smoke, a snake, a new pot, a blind man, a lame man, a pot of oil, any leather, salt, a tiger.

If a person places his head always towards the east in the sleeping posture, he will obtain wealth and health : if towards the south, a lengthening of life : if towards the west, fame : if towards the north, sickness. So a person should not lay his head to the north while sleeping.

If you dine with a friend, or relative, on Monday, Wednesday, Friday, or Saturday, it is well : if on a Tuesday, there will ensue an ill-feeling : if on a Thursday, endless enmity : if on a Sunday, hatred.

If, when you are leaving the house, your head or feet strike accidentally against the threshold, you must not go out, as it foretells that some mischief will befall you.

When the *thakk* or the sacred jewel on a thread worn round the neck of a Brâhman woman is lost, it is an omen that her husband will fall ill or be lost soon.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

SOCIAL CUSTOMS IN MADRAS.

When an elderly person calls on his friends or relations and expects to see their children, he should generally take with him some sweetmeats to be given to the children.

Upanayanam is the ceremony of investiture with the sacred thread. In this rite a mark is

made on the forehead with a paste of cummin seed and sugar, which is called the *upanayanam* (*upa* = extra, *nayanam* = eye, or extra eye), and also the mental eye. This ceremony generally takes place before a Brâhman boy attains his twelfth year. If it is delayed longer the boy is classed with the *Sûdras*.

Punyavâchanam are rites of purification. Literally the term means "something said on a good day," (*punya* = good, *vâchanam* = word). The rites consist in bathing the body (*snânam*) : seating the principal persons upon wooden seats in the midst of assembled guests and relations, and announcing the ceremony of *sankalpam* : i.e., the worship of Gaṇêśa as the god of wisdom, who is adored in the shape of a cone made of turmeric powder and water, placed upon rice contained in a silver tray. This ceremony is performed on the twelfth day after confinement or delivery, on which day the days of pollution are said to cease. The husband, who has grown his hair from the day of conception till now, may shave when the ceremony is over.

Among the Brâhman the host and the hostess call with the family priest on their friends and relations in the place on the day previous to a marriage, generally towards the evening, and invite them to the ceremonies and to all meals during the days of the marriage celebration. In token of the invitation the priest presents them with a little holy rice or *mantarakshadai*. The invitation party is always accompanied with music. Among the lower castes printed invitations are distributed with *pân supâri* by some male member of the house, told off for this duty, to the friends and relations in the place.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

SANSKRIT WORDS IN BURMESE.

(1) *Thinjân*. In the *Rangoon Gazette* of the 6th April, 1892, there appeared the following paragraph :—

"At 8 hrs. 34 m. 48s. p. m. on Monday, the full moon of 'Naung Tagû, 1283, (11th April, 1892,) three guns will be fired from the Port Officer's Flag Staff at Rangoon and from the

Court House at Mandalay on account of the Burmese Thingyan (Thinjān). The new year, 1254, B. E., will begin at 0 hrs. 36 m. p.m. on Thursday, the 2nd waning of 'Naung Tagū, 1253, (14th April, 1892)."

Thinjān (th as in 'thin') means to the Burmese, the occasion on which the head of Brahmā in the custody of seven female spirits, is transferred from one to another at the commencement of each new year, and has several interesting derivatives, e.g., *thinjānjā* and *thinjān-atājā*, letting go the head: *thinjānjāt* and *thinjān-atājāt*, the passage of the head: *thinjāndet* and *thinjān-atādet*, taking up the head: and lastly *thinjānkē*, the state of washing the king's head at the new year in order to wash away the sins of the people, one of the many curious Court expressions now passing into oblivion.

The word *thinjān* is, however, the Skr. *san-krama*, the passage of a planetary body through a zodiacal sign, by which the Burmese understand the passage of the sun at the commencement of the new year, the *sankrant* of the modern Hindu. The word in Burmese is spelt both *sankran* and *san3kran*, pronounced *thinjān*. The Pāli word is *sankama*. The Skr. derivation of *thinjān* is therefore clear.

(2) *Thinthagayaik* = the Sanskrit Language. This word is written *Saṁskārōk* = *Sanskṛita*. Compare *amrōk* (ante, p. 94, there misprinted *amrōt*) for *amṛita*. The Pāli word for the Sanskrit Language is *Sakkata* or *Sakkata*. The Skr. derivation of the Burmese word is here very clear.

R. C. TEMPLE.

BOOK-NOTICE.

CATALOGUE OF THE COINS IN THE GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, LAHORE. COMPILED BY CHAS. J. RODGERS, M.R.A.S., etc. Published by order of the Pānjāb Government Quarto, paper cover, Calcutta. Printed at the Baptist Mission Press, 1891.

Uncatalogued cabinets of coins are little better than useless collections of old metal, whereas a cabinet of very modest dimensions, if provided with an adequate catalogue, may prove to be the source of much valuable historical and numismatic information. India, unfortunately, does not possess any collection of coins which can compare with the European cabinets of the first rank, and, until a very short time ago, can hardly be said to have possessed any public collection. Now, thanks to the exertions of Mr. Rodgers, Dr. Hoernle, Dr. Bidie, Mr. Edgar Thurston, Dr. Führer, and others, helped by the patronage of the Government of India and the Local Governments, valuable public collections have been accumulated, and continue to grow, at Calcutta, Madras, Lucknow, and Lahore. I have not heard of the Bombay Government forming any cabinet of coins.

The principal public collection in India is that in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, and I understand that Mr. Rodgers is engaged in cataloguing it. Mr. Edgar Thurston has done good sound work in the issue of several little catalogues of the coins in the Madras Museum. No catalogue of the Lucknow collection has, so far as I am aware, been published. The subject of this notice is a catalogue of the coins in the Lahore Museum, compiled by Mr. C. G. Rodgers, Honorary Numismatist to the Government of India.

Before proceeding to discuss the book under review I shall take the liberty of recording a

protest against the scandalous indifference shown by the Pāñjāb Government to the encouragement of archaeological research, that is to say, to the reconstruction of the history of India prior to the Muhammadan conquest. Madras used to be open to reproach on the same account, but the Government of that Presidency is now wide awake, and is engaged in directing well-planned and well-executed measures for the recovery of the lost history of the territories under its charge. The Bombay Government has given ample proof of its intelligent interest in the past by the magnificent series of volumes of the Archaeological Survey of Western India. In the North-West Provinces and Oudh, ever since the time when Sir John Strachey was Lieutenant Governor, early neglect has been atoned for by considerable, though not lavish, patronage of archaeological investigations. The efforts of the Government of Bengal have not always been happily guided, but, at any rate, something has been done, and the administration is not open to the reproach of absolutely neglecting all enquiry into the history of the vast regions committed to its care. For the past thirty years the India Office and the Government of India have been most liberal in their support of archaeological enquiry, and have done, I think, all that could reasonably be expected of them. It has been reserved for the Government of the Pāñjāb to earn the ignominious distinction of displaying an utter indifference to the early history of its territories, which cannot be paralleled by any other administration in India. Yet, as all readers of the *Indian Antiquary* well know, the Pāñjāb is to the archaeologist, as it is to the statesman, by far the most interesting province of India.

Mr. Rodgers' catalogue of the coins in the Lahore Museum is apparently the only archæological publication issued under the patronage of the Pafjâb Government for many years past. The book is enclosed, it cannot be said that it is bound, in a flimsy paper cover which falls off at the first perusal. It is to be hoped that the authorities in the Pafjâb, when next they issue a book for the use of historical students, will harden their hearts, and at least venture on the expense of boards.

In Mr. Rodgers' work nineteen pages are devoted to a general introduction, including an extremely imperfect bibliography, one hundred and forty-nine pages to the main catalogue, thirty-one pages to a supplementary catalogue of coins recently acquired by the Museum, and four pages to Pâli coin inscriptions, with transliterations, and a plate of monogrammatic emblems.

It is a great thing to have a printed catalogue of the Lahore cabinet at all, and I fully appreciate the difficulties of the compiler's task, and the abundant labour and learning which he has expended upon it. Yet it is impossible for any reviewer not to regret the chaotic arrangement of the work, and the neglect of the small details which make perfection. It is confusing to find the early Buddhist Kuninda coins and the Yaudhêya pieces (page 23) inserted between the Guptas and the Khalifas, the Indo-Scythian coins with Hindi legends (page 52) placed at the end of the series of the coins of the Sultâns of Dehli, and followed by a class dubbed 'Miscellaneous Old Indian Coins,' which includes pieces of the Indo-Scythian, Gupta, and mediæval periods. Many other instances of eccentric arrangement might be quoted.

Inattention to minor details is shown in a multitude of misprints, in the neglect to distinguish Indian from Bactrian Pâli (Kharôshtri) in the table of inscriptions, and in various other ways. The book is printed in such a manner that much space is wasted.

So much for fault finding. I now turn to the pleasanter task of pointing out some of the items of interest to be found in the book.

Mr. Rodgers, in his Introduction, notices sundry *desiderata* in Indian numismatics, and it may be of some practical use to call the attention of readers of the *Indian Antiquary* to the

enormous amount of special work, which is required before it can be said that anything like a general account of the coinages of Northern India becomes possible. Mr. Rodgers remarks "how necessary is a *Coin Manual* for India, which should, in one volume, show how much is known at the present day on the subject" That one volume would, I fear, have to be a terribly thick one, and many and grievous would be the gaps in its contents.

It is odd (page v.) that the Lahore Museum should not contain a single specimen of the Mitra Dynasty, generally identified with the Puranic Sungas. Many of the coins of these princes have been described by Messrs. Rivett-Carnac and Carlleyle, but a monograph on the subject is wanted.

"The numismatics of Kâsmîr are full of anomalies (p. vii)." This puzzling subject was long ago treated by Sir A. Cunningham, but there is plenty of room for a more exhaustive treatise on it.

"Much work remains to be done to the coins of Jaunpur. The various types are, as yet, but imperfectly known" At present the brief notice in Thomas' *Chronicles* is the standard account.

The coinages of the local dynasties, such as those of Mâlwa and Kângrâ, all require further elucidation.

"The neighbouring (i. e., to Kângrâ) state of Chambâ also had a coinage of its own. The coins were of copper only, and the characters on them were a kind of Hill Sanskrit or Thâkurf. On some of the coins are the Râja's name, and that of one of the gods of Chambâ. They have never been written about." (p. xiii). Ten of these coins are catalogued (p. 121).

Pages xiii to xv of the Introduction contain some valuable observations on the coins of the Mughal Emperors, which, as is truly observed, "form an immense series." Nothing approaching a comprehensive account of this immense series exists, and perhaps the most pressing need of the Indian numismatist is that of a fairly complete description of the Mughal coinages, from the time of Bâbar to that of Bahâdur Shâh II., a period of a little more than three centuries. An absolutely complete catalogue is out of the question, because the number of varieties is almost infinite, but the compilation

¹ [The States and petty principalities of Pafjâla, Nâbhâ, Jind, Mâlér-Kôtilâ, Kâthâl, Kapurthâlâ, Bahâwalpur, Ambâlâ and Jagâdhrî all had coinages of their own, and, so I am told, had many others besides; George Thomas of Hissâr, for example. Since I wrote my paper on the

subject, *ante*, Vol. XVIII. p. 321 ff, I spent but a day or so in Pafjâla, and picked up gold, silver and copper specimens of some of these mintages new to me, and so far as I know, not even suspected to exist by numismatists. — Ed.]

of a sufficiently satisfactory treatise is quite possible, though the task would be far from easy, and it might be difficult to find a publisher.

The absence, throughout the greater part of Mr. Rodgers' catalogue, of references to published catalogues of particular series renders it extremely troublesome to discover whether the Lahore collection contains any remarkable novelties or not, and, as regards most of the coinages, I cannot attempt to examine the collection in detail.

In a recent paper I ventured to doubt the rather hesitating assertion of Mr. Thomas that coins exist bearing the names both of Prithivī Rāja and of his conqueror Muḥammad bin Sām. But the billon coin described at page 35 sets my doubts at rest. The description is as follows:—

"Billon:—one specimen, very rare, 48 [scil. grains]. *Obv.* Horseman, *की पृथ्वीराज देव. 'Śrī Prithivī Rāja Dēva.'* Thos. p. 18, no. 15. *Rev.* Bull, *की महम्मद साम, 'Śrī Mahammad Sām.'*"

Paṇḍit Ratan Nārāyan of Dehli also possessed a specimen of this rare type. It is entered as unique in the privately printed catalogue of his collection.

The confused arrangement of the book under review must be my apology for referring next to coins of earlier date.

Nos. 5-8, described at page 53, are coins of the Gupta period, or possibly a little later. No. 5, the only one at all distinct, is thus described by Mr. Rodgers:—

"Wt. 113-2. Diameter. 75. *Obv.* King in armour, standing to right, left hand grasps a staff, right hand is making an offering at an altar. Above right arm is a *trishul* with fillet. Under left arm *Pasana* or *Pasata*, letters one above the other as on Gupta coins. To right *ॐ* (P) indefinite. *Rev.* Female seated on throne, holds cornucopias in left hand, and in right a wreath, as on Gupta coins. To left a monogram not well defined."

I am indebted to Mr. Rodgers for inspection of another specimen of this class. The metal seemed to me to be brass (possibly very impure gold) and the obverse legend clearly to be *Pasata*. The legend outside the spear (staff) was illegible, and the reverse was without legend. I cannot assign these coins.

A copper coin of Toramāṇa is catalogued on page 54. "*Obv.* Seated figure to right (जय). *Rev.* Standing figure to left, *की तो ...*" Coins of this type are said to be common. Mr. Rodgers seems to have overlooked the paper by Mr. Fleet

on "The Coins and History of Toramāṇa," *ante*, Vol. XVIII. pp. 225-230.

Like so many branches of Indian numismatics, the coinages of Toramāṇa and Mihirakula require further examination. Mr. Rodgers catalogues a few specimens of Mihirakula's copper coinage at page 141, but characteristically omits the king's name from his index.

In his notice of 84 specimens of punch-marked coins (page 110) Mr. Rodgers makes the odd observation that "no paper that I am aware of has ever been written on these punch-marked coins." A good deal has been written on the subject.

The description of a few specimens of the well known Varāha coins, (p. 112) ignores the demonstration by Dr. Hultzsch that they were struck by King Bhōja of Kanauj in the latter part of the ninth century A. D. (*Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I. p. 155, note.)

The Supplement contains some novelties, thus;—

Two small silver coins of 'Alī, an early Governor of Sindh (page 6) are stated to be "now published for the first time."

On pages 8 and 9 several new coins of the Sultāns of Ghazni are described.

An unpublished variety of the coins of Razia (Rizīya) is noticed on page 17.

Two of the exceedingly rare silver coins struck by Humāyūn at Kandahār are catalogued on page 26.

One of the rare zodiacal coins of Jahāngir, with the sign Taurus, is described on page 27.

V. A. SMITH.

31st Jan. 1892.

Postscript.

Since the above review was written, I have received a copy of a most valuable little book entitled, *Coins of Ancient India from the Earliest Times down to the Seventh Century, A. D.*, by Major-General Sir A. Cunningham, (Quaritch, 1891). This work, which is illustrated by thirteen autotype plates of coins, and a map of N.-W. India, describes the punch-marked mintages, and the coins of Taxila, Odumbara, the Kunindas, Kosambi, the Yaudhēyas, Pañchāla, Mathurā, Ayōdhya, Ujain, Śrap or Śrakaina, the Andhras, Kārwār, and Nēpāl. It marks a great advance in the study of Indian numismatics. I hope to have an opportunity of noticing it more at length.

14-2-92.

V. A. S.

EKAMRANATHA INSCRIPTION OF GANAPATI; DATED SAKA-SAMVAT 1172.

BY E. HULTZSCH, PH.D.; BANGALORE.

THIS inscription is engraved on the north wall of the second *prākāra* of the Saiva temple of **Ēkāmranātha**, the largest of the numerous temples at **Kāñchīpura**. It consists of 17 Sanskrit verses in the Grantha character and professes to be an edict (*śāsana*, verses 1, 15, 16, 17) of king **Gaṇapati**, who traced his descent from the race of the Sun (verses 5 and 11) and whose immediate ancestors were :—

Betmarāja (v. 8).

His successor : Prôḍarāja (v. 9).

,, ,, : Rudradêva (v. 10).

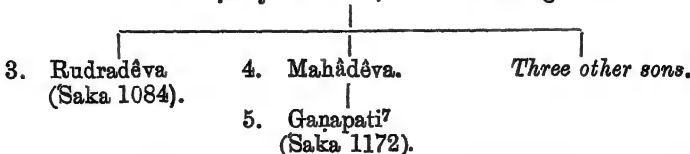
The eldest of his four younger brothers : Mahâdêva (v. 11).

His son : Gaṇapati (v. 12).

Prôḍarāja is said to have constructed a large tank, which he called *Jagatikêsarī-taṭāka* after a surname of his (v. 9). **Gaṇapati** claims to have defeated **Sinhana** and the **Kaliṅga** king, and to have the kings of **Lāṭa** (Gujarāt) and **Gauḍa** (Bengal) for vassals (v. 14). His minister (*sachiva*) and general (*sainyapāla*), **Sāmanta-Bhōja**, who belonged to the race of **Dōchi**, appears to have held the appointment of governor (*chakradhārin*) of **Kāñchi**. He was probably a Brāhmaṇa, as he claims to be a member of the *Kāśyapagōtra* (v. 15). By order of the king, he gave to the **Ēkāmra** temple at **Kāñchi** the village of **Kaḷattūr**¹ (v. 16). The date of the grant was Tuesday, the eleventh *tithi* of the dark fortnight of *Jyāishṭha* of *Sāka* 1172 (in words), the cyclic year *Saumya* (v. 17). According to Mr. Sewell's *South-Indian Chronological Tables*, the corresponding European date is Tuesday, the 8th June, 1249 A. D.

The dynasty to which **Gaṇapati** belonged, is not named in the inscription. But the names of two of his predecessors, **Prôḍarāja** and **Rudradêva**, are identical with two kings of the **Kakatiya**² dynasty of Worangal,³ **Prôla** and his son **Rudradêva**, who are known from the *Anumakoṇḍa* inscription of Saka 1084.⁴ This close agreement and the mention of **Gaṇapati** as one of the Worangal kings in unpublished inscriptions and local records⁵ leave no doubt that the two pairs of names are identical, that the **Gaṇapati** of the subjoined inscription was the nephew of **Rudradêva** of Worangal, and that, at the time of his reign, **Kāñchi** was included in the territories of the **Kakatiya** kings. According to the *Anumakoṇḍa* inscription, **Prôla**'s father was called **Tribhuvanamalla**, while the subjoined inscription mentions **Betmarāja** as the immediate predecessor of **Prôḍarāja**. It follows from these two statements that **Betmarāja** was the real name of the father and predecessor of **Prôḍarāja**, and that **Tribhuvanamalla** was a *biruda* of his. Thus a combination of both inscriptions furnishes the following short genealogy of the **Kakatiyas** of Worangal :—

1. Betmarāja, surnamed Tribhuvanamalla, of the race of the Sun.

2. Prôḍarāja or Prôla,⁶ surnamed Jagatikêsarīn.

¹ Kaḷattūr is now a large village, after which the next Railway station south of Chingleput is called.

² Thus the word is spelled in the *Pratāparudrīya*. The *Anumakoṇḍa* inscription has the forms *Kākatya* and *Kakatiya*.

³ This name is spelled *Orangalla* in Brown's *Telugu Dictionary*. In a Telugu chronicle (*Madras Journal for 1881*, p. 238) we find the form *Orugalla*, 'Single Rock,' which tallies with the Sanskrit name *Ēkaśilā*; see below, note 12.

⁴ Published by Dr. Fleet, *ante*, Vol. XI. pp. 9 ff.

⁵ Mr. Sewell's *Lists of Antiquities*, Vol. II. pp. 114 ff. and 172 ff.

⁶ *Prôla* or *prôla* is a *tadbhava* of the Sanskrit *praudha*; see Brown, s. v. *prôḍa*.

⁷ According to local records, **Gaṇapati** was the son of **Rudradêva** and nephew of **Mahâdêva**; see Wilson's *Mackenzie Collection*, p. 77, and Taylor's *Catalogue*, Vol. III. p. 433. An unpublished inscription, which is quoted by Sir W. Elliot, *Coins of Southern India*, p. 83, agrees with the **Ēkāmranātha** inscription.

The *Siṃhaṇa* who is reported to have been afraid of *Gaṇapati* (v. 14), was probably the *Yādava* king *Siṃhaṇa* II. of *Dēvagiri* (*Daulatābād*), who reigned from *Saka* 1131 to 1169, and who, in his turn, calls himself 'the uprooter of the water-lily which was the head of the king of *Telūṅga*.'⁸ In the *Paithan* grant of the *Yādava* king *Rāmachandra*,⁹ *Siṃhaṇa* II. is said to have overcome the *Andhra* king. The predecessor of *Siṃhaṇa* II., *Jaitugi* I. (*Saka* 1113 to 1131), is said to have slain the king of *Trikaliṅga* in battle and to have seized the whole of his kingdom. Further "(this) ocean of compassion fetched *Gaṇapati*, the speech of whose mouth was sweet, from the prison-house and made (him) lord of (his) country." Accordingly, *Gaṇapati* was a contemporary of both *Jaitugi* I. and *Siṃhaṇa* II. The king of *Trikaliṅga*, who was defeated and killed by *Jaitugi* I., may have been either *Gaṇapati*'s father *Mahādēva* or his uncle *Rudradēva*.¹⁰ The words of the *Paithan* grant leave it doubtful if *Gaṇapati*, before he was installed on the throne by *Jaitugi* I., had been kept imprisoned by this king, or by his own father *Mahādēva*, or by his uncle *Rudradēva*. A still earlier synchronism between the *Kākatiyas* and *Yādavas* appears to be contained in the *Anumakoṇḍa* inscription, which states that *Rudradēva* defeated one *Mailigidēva*. This may have been the *Yādava* king *Mallugi*, who, according to the *Paithan* grant, was the predecessor of *Bhīlāma* (*Saka* 1109 to 1113).

Some additional information on the *Kākatiya* dynasty may be gathered from the *Pratāparudrayaśōbhāṣhaṇa* or *Pratāparudriya*, a treatise on *Alaṅkāra*. The author of this work, *Vidyānātha*, must have been a contemporary of *Pratāparudra*, as he illustrates the rules of *Sanskrit* composition almost exclusively by verses in praise of that king. For the subjoined extracts I am using an edition in *Telugu* characters, printed at *Madras* in 1888 with the commentary of *Kumārasvāmi-Sōmapīthin*, the son of the well-known *Kōlachala-Mallināthasūri* and younger brother of *Pedayārya*. The *Kākatiya*¹¹ king *Pratāparudra* resided at *Ēkasīlā-nagara*,¹² the capital of the *Andhra* or *Triliṅga* country. The second of these *Sanskrit* names of the *Telugu* country is supposed to owe its origin to three famous *līṅgas* of *Siva*¹³ at *Śrīsaila*,¹⁴ *Kalēśvara*¹⁵ and *Drākshārāma*.¹⁶ The hermitage of *Hidimba* (*Hidimbāsrama*, p. 130, or *Hidimbālaya*, p. 131) must be looked for in the neighbourhood of *Worangal*. *Anumakoṇḍa*, the former capital of the *Kākatiyas*,¹⁷ is referred to by its *Sanskrit* name *Hanumadachala* 'the hill of *Hanumat*' (p. 109). The crest (*mudrā*) of *Pratāparudra* was the figure of a boar¹⁸ (*varāha*, pp. 35 and 119, or *krōḍa*, pp. 203 and 307). The name of his mother was *Mumma-dambā* (p. 12).

Further details about the king and two of his predecessors are given in a panegyric drama, which forms the third chapter of the *Pratāparudriya*. The father of *Pratāparudra*

⁸ Dr. Fleet's *Kanarese Dynasties*, p. 72.

⁹ Published by Dr. Fleet, *ante*, Vol. XIV. pp. 314 ff.

¹⁰ Taylor, l. c. states that "Gaṇapati, making war against the *Dēvagiri* ruler, who had killed his uncle *Mahādēva*, conquered that chief, and took his daughter, named *Rudramadēvi*, to be his wife." But see Dr. Bhandarkar's *Early History of the Dekkan*, p. 82.

¹¹ As noticed by Dr. Burnell (*Tanjore Catalogue*, p. 53 f.), the commentary (p. 7) derives this word from *Kākati*, a name of *Durgā* :— काकतिर्नाम दुर्गा शक्तिरेकशिलानगरेधराणां कुलदेवता । सा शक्तिर्भजनीयास्येति काकतीयः.

¹² *Ēkasīlā* is the *Sanskrit* equivalent of *Orugallu*, on which see p. 197, note 3. The form *Ēkasaila* (*ante*, Vol. XI. p. 12) does not occur in the *Pratāparudriya* and is probably due to a mistake.

¹³ Page 143 :— यैर्देशस्त्रिभिरेव याति मूर्तौ ख्यातिं त्रिलिङ्गाख्यया येषां काकतिराजकीर्तिविभवैः कैलासशैलाः कृताः ।

ते देवाः प्रसरत्पसादमधुराः श्रीशैलकालेधरद्राक्षारामनिवासिनः प्रतिदिनं त्वच्छ्रेयसे जायन्तु ॥

¹⁴ In the *Karnāl* district.

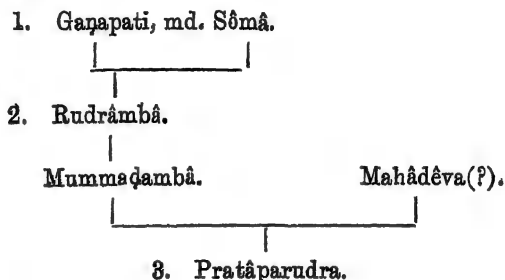
¹⁵ The temple at *Kālahasti* in the *North Arcot* district.

¹⁶ In the *Gōdāvari* district. The commentary notices the form *Dākshārāma*, which does really occur in an inscription of *Vīra-Chōḍa* (*ante*, Vol. XIX. p. 424), and quotes the following derivation of it from the *Śhāṇḍapurāṇa* :— दक्ष-ह्यारामभूमित्वाक्षारामेभिधीयते.

¹⁷ *ante*, Vol. XI. p. 9 f. The original form of this *Telugu* name seems to be *Hanumatkoṇḍa*, 'the hill of *Hanumat*.'

¹⁸ This crest is alluded to in verse 13 of the subjoined inscription.

was Mahādēva(?);¹⁹ but his immediate predecessor was the daughter of Gaṇapati (pp. 132 and 136) by Sôma.²⁰ Her father Gaṇapati,²¹ who appears to have been without male issue, had called her his "son" and conferred on her the male name "Rudra" (p. 102). At his death she seems to have succeeded him on the throne. In the text of the drama she is always styled "the king" (*rājā*) and once (p. 123) Mahārāja-Rudra,²² while the commentary (pp. 101 and 104) calls her Rudrāmbā. At the command of the god Svayambhū (Śiva) she adopted her daughter's son Pratāparudra and appointed him as her successor.²³ Thus the *Pratāparudriya* furnishes the following pedigree:—



The local records further suggest that No. 1. Gaṇapati is identical with No. 5. Gaṇapati of the pedigree derived from inscriptions (p. 197, above). Accordingly, Rudrāmbā will be No. 6 and Pratāparudra No. 7 in the list of the Kākatīya dynasty. The only event of Gaṇapati's reign, which is alluded to in the *Pratāparudriya*, is, that he founded a Śaiva shrine called Gaṇapēśvara (p. 143). Both Rudrāmbā (p. 101) and Pratāparudra (p. 42) had the *biruda* Chalamartigaṇḍa. Pratāparudra is reported to have conquered a large number of distant countries on his *viṣayayātrā* or grand tour. Repeated mention is made of the defeat of the Yādava king of Sēvāṇa. This king had crossed the Gautamī (i.e. Gôdāvarī) river, north of which his territory must accordingly have been situated, and was put to flight by the commander of an army of Pratāparudra.²⁴ Among the kings of an early branch of the Yādavas, which was settled in the Nāsik district, we find three times the name Sēunachandra.²⁵ The first Sēunachandra founded Sēunapura at, i.e. transferred his capital to, Sindinagara or Sindinēra, the modern Sinnar in the Nāsik district.²⁶ Later on, the term Sēunadēśa was employed as the designation of the territories of the Yādavas of Dēvagiri. For, in Hēmadri's account of the reign of Mahādēva (Śaka 1182 to 1193), Dēvagiri is said to be included in the country called Sēuṇa;²⁷ and in the Paithan grant of Rāmachandra (Śaka 1193 to 1230), it is stated that the granted village belonged to the country of Sēuṇa and was situated on the northern bank of the Gôdāvarī.²⁸ This country of Sēuṇa is evidently identical with the country of

¹⁹ This statement rests on the commentator's explanation of a verse (p. 91) which, in my opinion, rather refers to king Gaṇapati than to Pratāparudra. The local records call Pratāparudra's father Virabhadra.

²⁰ Page 102:— सैवोमा चेति निर्दिष्टा सोमा चेति प्रथमगात् । तत्र याता शिवा [read शिवः] साक्षादेवो गणपतिः पिता ॥

²¹ According to the local records, she was not the daughter, but the widow of Gaṇapati.

²² Thus the coins of queen Līlāvatī of Ceylon bear the legend श्रीराजलीलावती, and those of queen Razīya of Delhi bear the title السلطان الاعظم.

²³ On page 104, Śiva addresses the queen thus:—

स्वीकृते पुत्रभावेन दौहित्रे प्राङ्महात्म्या । अस्मिन्निधेहि धीरेये गुर्वीर्गुर्वीधुरामिति ॥

The commentator explains प्राङ् by जन्मकाले.

²⁴ Page 156:— रे रे सेवण कस्तवायमनिर्दुर्लभं गर्वो महानुचीर्णो किल येन गौतमनदी प्राप्नोसि द्युत्योर्मुखम् ।

एषा काकतिवीररुद्र इति किं नाश्रावि सताक्षरी प्रभुभ्यत्तिपक्षपार्थिवमहाभूतमहोबाटनी ॥

Page 291:— राज्ञो यादववंशपार्थिवमणेः प्रख्यातशौर्यैश्वर्यस्वङ्गजुङ्गलुरंगसैन्यमहतो मौनैकविनस्य च ।

सद्यो रुद्रनरेन्द्रनायकचमूनाथेन केनाप्यधिकृतस्याचरितानि सेवणपतेर्जानाति सा गौतमी ॥

²⁵ *ante*, Vol. XII. p. 128.

²⁷ Dr. Bhandarkar's *Early History of the Dekkan*, p. 87.

²⁶ *Ibid.* p. 124, and Vol. XVII. p. 118.

²⁸ *ante*, Vol. XIV. p. 815.

Sēvaṇa,²⁹ which, according to the *Pratāparudriya*, was situated north of the Gōdāvari and ruled over by a Yādava king. As Pratāparudra reigned from A. D. 1295 to 1323,³⁰ his Yādava antagonist must have been Rāmachandra, the last independent king of Dēvagiri. As suggested by Dr. Bhandarkar,³¹ the name Sēṇadēśa is perhaps preserved in the modern term Khândēś.

The only inscription of Pratāparudra, of which I have a copy at hand, is a fragment discovered by my First Assistant, Mr. V. Venkayya, on the west wall of the second *prākāra* of the Jambukēśvara temple near Trichinopoly. It is written in the Grantha character, but in the Telugu language. Of the two first lines only the following words are preserved :—

1 [मे] श्वकाकतीयप्रतापरुद्रदेवमहारा [जु] तु

2 [ग] तु पृथिवीराज्यम् सेयुचुण्डगानु आ राजु

TEXT,

1 स्वस्ति श्रीः [॥ *] एतन्निखिलभूपालमौलिमण्डलमण्डनम् [१ *] गणपत्यवनीन्द्रस्य चन्द्रार्कस्थायि शासनम् । [१ *] तेजश्च श्रेयसाय स्याद्व्यवन्तावळाननम् [१ *] अनन्यास्वारितस्तन्यशैलकन्या-

2 स्तनन्धयम् ॥ [२ *] कुशलमविकलं करोतु कोलस्स किल सरोरुहवासिनीसहायः [१ *] तरति यदुरुपो-
जपोतपान्या प्रतिशुगमेव महोरधिन्यरित्री ॥ [३ *] शाश्वतीम् मुदमुदञ्चयता [३ *] अन्द्रचूडमुकुटेन्दुकला सा [१ *]

3 यामुमा स्पृशति नौरिति मौक्ती मौलिमण्डननरीजलकोकौ ॥ [४ *] यस्सामर्ग्यजुषाम् प्रमेयपदवीसीमो महिम्नः
पदम् यस्तेजः [४ *] स्तवकीकृतम् क्रतुभुजाम् कोटधास्तयस्तिशतः [१ *] तन्नेत्रादुपपद्यते-

4 ष भगवानम्भोजिनीव [१ *] न्धवो । बाह्याभ्यन्तरबन्धुरान्धतमसाहंकारसंहारकः ॥ [५ *] तस्मादपथनिपा-
नुकजगतीकरदीपकरणिनीतिकरः ³² [१ *] मनुराक्षिो नृपाणाम् [सी] मेवाभूदुपाय [१ *] नाम् ॥ [६ *]
सगरभगी-

5 रथपतिरधुरामाद्यास्तदनु सन्धुर्ध्वणिम् ॥ अथ गच्छति बहुकाले तदन्वये दुर्जया भियाम् प्राप्तिः ॥ [७ *]
अभिमतभुजभाजाम् बाहुजानां कुलेस्मिन्नजनि जनित [की] त्तिर्भूततिर्बैस्मराजः [१ *] ³³ अधिगरुड-

6 तुरंगम् प्रेक्ष्य साक्षात्कृतन्तम् प्रथमगरुडवाहन्मेनिरे यम्भनुव्याः ॥ [८ *] ³⁴ द्विषदुपहतद्व्यत्तन्तिमेधंकराक्षो
निरविशदथ भूमिम् भूपतिः प्रोडराजः ॥ प्रतिनिधिसुक्धीनां सञ्चयन्तोयसृष्टे-

7 रकृत जगतिकेसर्ग्याख्यया यस्तदाकम् ॥ [९ *] तदनु पवनवेगप्रत्यनीकाश्वधादीविहितमहितभुभृद्भिर्वो
रुद्रदेवः ॥ अलमकृत कुलन्तव क्षमापकोटीरहीरप्रकरमुकुरविम्बत्पाद्विम्बो (ल) लक्ष्मीः ³⁵ ॥ [१० *]

8 तदनुजगणमुख्यदश्रीमहादेवराजस्तपनकुलसमुद्राद्यादृशः पारिजातः [१ *] अलभत विनदीपव्यापदं यस्य की-
र्त्तैरसदृशरुचिजालैरन्यराज्यकीर्त्तिः ॥ [११ *] महादेवमहीपालाज्जातो गणपतिर्धृपः [१ *] अमी-

9 भिर्विक्त्रमैरेभिर्गुणैरभिर्विभूतिभिः ॥ [१२ *] ³⁶ कोलांकोभून्मृगांको [नि] वसति कमले श्रीरिति श्रीवराहः
प्राप्तो नैषा प्रियस्योरसि रतिविरतो लम्नगण्डम् प्रमुखा [१ *] इत्यालापे सखीनामुषसि सकुतुकम्

10 सत्रपम् सातुतापं हस्ताभ्यां यद्विप्रस्त्री विनमितवदना गण्डपाळी पिधते ॥ [१३ *] यदुदयकृतचेतोर्लिखण-
स्तिहणो यच्चदुल्लभमवधादीदृचभंगः कलिगः [१ *] अपि च यदुपसेवाजीविनी ला-

²⁹ A further reference to a king of Sēvaṇa is found in Dr. Fleet's *Kanarese Dynasties*, p. 68 :—“ An inscription of (the Hoysala king) Narasimha II. gives a graphic account of a battle between his father (Ballāla II.) and a certain Semana or Sevuna, whom he besieged and defeated at Soratur near Gadag, and pursued from there up to the Krishnapavērnā, where he slew him, and who was probably the commander-in-chief of Jaitugi's army.” Mallinātha-Oḍeyar, the commander-in-chief of king Bukka of Vijayanagara, claims to be the commander of the Sēvaṇa army (*Sēvaṇa-dūla*) and of other armies.—See Mr. Rice's *Mysore Inscriptions*, pp. 2 and 5; I am quoting from impressions of these two inscriptions, the originals of which are in the Sampige-Siddhēśvara temple at Chitaldroog.

³⁰ Mr. Sewall's *Lists of Antiquities*, Vol. II, p. 173.

³¹ *Early History of the Dekkan*, Supplement, p. iv.

³² Read °करण°.

³³ Read अधि°.

³⁴ The प of द्विषदुप° is entered below the line.

³⁵ Read °विम्बोऽलक्ष्मीः°.

³⁶ The syllables लंको are entered over the line.

11 दगौडौ गणपतिनृपतेः कः [१] भाषते विक्रमाय ॥ [१४*] तस्याज्ञाचक्रधारी प्रथितभुजरुचिस्सै [न्य] पा-
लाग्रगण्यो ३७ वाचां वा ताम्रपण्णीमसृणमणिवरः काश्यपश्चाव्यगोत्रः [१*] काश्यामाकल्पका-

12 लम् गणपतिनृपतेः दशासनं संव्यधत् श्रीमत्सामन्तभोजो गणपतिसचिवो होचिदुग्धाब्धिचन्द्रः ॥ [१५*]
देवस्यैकाग्रधाम्नो बह्वहमसपर्यावसृण्यससिद्धयै धामन्नाम्ना कळचूरिति भु-

13 वि विहितं सस्यद्वयान्निवेद्य [१*] काश्यामाकल्पकालं गणपतिनृपतेः दशासनं संव्यधत् श्रीमत्सामन्तभोजो
गणपतिसचिवो होचिदुग्धाब्धिचन्द्रः ॥ [१६*] शाकाब्दे तु द्विसप्तत्यधिकशिवशतख्यातसंख्यानमाने सौम्याब्दे

14 ३८ अष्टमासे बह्वहहरिदिने भौमवारे समेहि [१*] काश्यामाकल्पकालं गणपतिनृपतेः दशासनं ३९ संव्यधत्
श्रीमत्सामन्तभोजो गणपतिसचिवो होचिदुग्धाब्धिचन्द्रः ॥ [१७*]

TRANSLATION.

Hail ! Prosperity !

Verse 1. This (*is*) an edict (*śāsana*) of king **Gaṇapati**, which adorns the heads of (*i. e.* which is obeyed by) all kings, and which shall endure as long as the moon and the sun.

2. Let the power (*Gaṇēśa*) which has the face of a rutting elephant, and which has sucked the breast of (*Pārvatī*) the daughter of the mountain, whose milk was tasted by no other, — produce happiness !

3. Let that boar (*Vishṇu*) who is the consort of (*Lakṣmī*) that dwells in the lotus, and on whose big snout, as on a boat, the earth crosses the great ocean (*at the end of*) each *yuga*, — produce complete welfare !

4. Let that sickle of the moon on the head of *Siva*, which *Umā*, sporting in the water of the (*Gaṅgā*) river that adorns the head (*of Siva*), touches, (*exclaiming* : “ *Here is*) a boat of pearls !” — procure you everlasting bliss !

5. From the eye of (*Siva*) who is the abode of the greatness (*which is reached*) at the end of the path that is to be known from the *Sāman*, *Rich* and *Yajus* (*Vēdas*),⁴⁰ and who combines the power of the thirty-three crores of gods, — was produced that god (*viz.* the *Sun*), who is the friend of the lotus plant, and who dispels intensely deep darkness without and egotism within (*the mind*).

6. From him was born **Manu**, the first of kings and master of expedients,⁴¹ who produced (*a treatise on*) right conduct, which supplies a handy lamp to men who are apt to stumble on the wrong path.

7. After him, **Sagara**, the lord **Bhagiratha**, **Raghu**, **Rāma** and other (*kings*) of his race, who were hard to be overcome by approaching dangers, ruled the earth in the course of a long period of time.

8. In this race of warriors,⁴² whose arms were respected, was born the renowned king **Betmarāja**, whom people, when they saw him on his horse (*called*) *Garuḍa*, took for the first rider on *Garuḍa* (*i. e.* for *Vishṇu*) appearing visibly.

9. Then the earth was enjoyed by king **Prōḍarāja**, who covered the horizon with clouds, (*viz.*) the rutting elephants offered (*as presents*) by his (*conquered*) enemies, and who constructed a tank (*taṭṭaka*) (*which he called*) by (*his*) name **Jagatikēsarīn**⁴³ (*i. e.* the lion of the earth), which equalled the oceans, and which accumulated the downpour of water.

३७ The first & of ° पात्ता ° is entered below the line.

३८ Read ज्यैष्ठ °.

३९ The syllable स is entered below the line.

४० *Siva* is here identified with the universal soul of the *Vēdānta* philosophy.

४१ Literally, ‘the limit, as it were, of expedients.’

४२ The *Kṣatriyas* are called *bāhujā*, ‘arm-born,’ because they are supposed to have been produced from *Brahmā*’s arms.

४३ In this compound, as in *Kālidāsa* and other names, the final *t* of the first member (*jagati*) is shortened in accordance with *Pāṇini*, vi. 3, 68. The synonymous *biruḍa* *Avanishinha* occurs in verse 20 of an unpublished *Pallava* grant from *Kaśākrūṭi*.

10. After him, this race was adorned by **Budradēva**, who put to flight exalted kings by the attack of horses which rivalled the wind in swiftness, and the proud splendour of whose feet was reflected, as by mirrors, by the multitude of the diamonds in the diadems of (*prostrated*) kings.

11. The first of the multitude of his younger brothers, the illustrious king **Mahādēva**, (*was produced*) from the race of the Sun, as the *pārijāta* (tree) from the ocean.⁴⁴ In consequence of the unequalled splendour of his fame, the fame of other kings experienced the fate of a lamp at day-light.

12. From king **Mahādēva** was born king **Gaṇapati**, (*who was endowed*) with the same courage, the same virtues, and the same power.

13. "The deer-marked (*moon*) has become boar-marked." "The blessed boar (*or* Vishṇu) has come, because beauty (*or* Sī) dwells in the lotus." "This lady has not slept with her cheeks pressed to the breast of her husband after dalliance." (*Successively*) experiencing curiosity, shame and grief during this morning talk of her maids, the wife of his (*viz.* Gaṇapati's) enemy bends her face down and covers the two marks on her cheeks with both hands.⁴⁵

14. Who can boast of the courage of king **Gaṇapati**, at whose rise **Sinhana** lost his heart, by the attack of whose fine soldiers the **Kalinga** (*king*) was overthrown, and who is served by the **Lāṭa** and the **Gauḍa** (*kings*)?

15. He, who by his (*the king's*) order held a province,⁴⁶ the splendour of whose arms was famous, the foremost among generals (*sainyapāla*), who, as regards eloquence (?), was the best of the smooth gems of the **Tāmrāparṇī** (*river*),⁴⁷ who belonged to the renowned *gōtra* of the **Kāśyapas**, the minister of **Gaṇapati**, the illustrious **Sāmanta-Bhōja**, who, as the moon from the milk-ocean, (*was produced*) from the **Dōchi** (*family*), executed at **Kāñchi** the edict of king **Gaṇapati**, (*which shall last*) to the end of the *kalpa*.

16. By presenting to the god who resides in the **Ēkamra** (*temple*), — in order that wealth might be deposited (*in the temple*) for conducting the worship with great splendour, — a village which is famed on earth by the name **Kalattūr**, and which abounds in grain, — **Gaṇapati's** minister, the illustrious **Sāmanta-Bhōja**, the moon of the milk-ocean of the **Dōchi** (*family*), executed at **Kāñchi** the edict of king **Gaṇapati**, (*which shall last*) to the end of the *kalpa*.

17. In the **Saka** year, which was measured by the famous (?) number eleven hundred⁴⁸ increased by seventy-two, in the *Saṃvya* year, in the month of *Jyāishṭha*, in the dark fortnight, on the day of **Hari** (*Vishṇu*),⁴⁹ a Tuesday, at noon (?), — **Gaṇapati's** minister, the illustrious **Sāmanta-Bhōja**, the moon of the milk-ocean of the **Dōchi** (*family*), executed at **Kāñchi** the edict of king **Gaṇapati**, (*which shall last*) to the end of the *kalpa*.

⁴⁴ This simile implies, that the last king, **Budradēva**, had four younger brothers, and that **Mahādēva** was the eldest of these. In the *Amarakōśa* (i. 1, 53), the *pārijāta* tree takes the second place among the five celestial trees.

⁴⁵ As suggested to me by Paṇḍit Bājagōpālāchārya of Chikka-Ballāpura, the maids allude by the words 'moon' and 'lotus' to the face of their captive mistress, on which a boar, the crest of king **Gaṇapati**, was painted. She experiences curiosity and shame, because she does not immediately catch the allusion, but takes the two first remarks of her maids in their literal sense. The third remark, which clearly refers to the painted figure on her cheeks, undeceives her and reminds her of her past happiness and present misery. With the opening words of verse 13, कौलाङ्गुलिभूम्भगाङ्गुः, compare page 35 of the *Pratīparudrīya*: —

मन्थानाचलमूलमेवकशिलासंघटनदयामिकाकारं यजुर्हिनयुतौ स्फुरति तत्सारङ्गमाचक्षते ।

मन्ये नन्विह वीररुद्रपतेः कीर्तिधिया निर्जितस्तन्मुद्राङ्गुवराहमिन्दुरुरसा बिभ्रत्समुज्जृम्भते ॥

⁴⁶ *Chakradhārin* appears to have the same technical meaning, which the dictionaries attribute to *chakradhara* and *chakrapāla*.

⁴⁷ 'The smooth gems of the **Tāmrāparṇī**' are the pearls, for which this river is celebrated. The epithet may also imply that **Sāmanta-Bhōja** was born on the banks of that river.

⁴⁸ Literally, 'Śiva's hundred.' Śiva is synonymous with **Budra**, which, since there are eleven **Rudras**, is used as a numerical word for 'eleven.'

⁴⁹ i. e. the eleventh *tithī*, which is sacred to **Vishṇu**.

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

*Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.**(Concluded from page 177).*

CHAPTER V.

THE LANGUAGE OF THE EDICTS, AND THE LINGUISTIC HISTORY OF INDIA.

It is not sufficient to consider the language of Piyadasi as an isolated subject. His monuments form only the first link in the chain of Indian epigraphical documents. The facts which they reveal cannot fail to throw light on the period following, and our conclusions, if they are correct, cannot fail to find a more or less direct verification in later facts. It is this order of ideas which I propose to consider in this concluding chapter.

PART I.

THE CHRONOLOGY OF THE INSCRIPTIONS.

The most urgent task is to establish, as exactly as possible, the chronological classification of the monuments with which we have now to deal. I do not propose to examine once more in detail the thorny problems which the chronology of India presents for the period which extends from Aśoka to the kings of Valabhî: still less do I propose to bring forward here any original system of my own. These questions have been studied by such good judges, and have been replied to in so many different ways, that little room is left for new theories. I believe that the true solutions have been already indicated, and I intend simply to group dispersed elements together, and to connect them into a coherent whole, both by the consistency with which the principal dates fit into each other in one uninterrupted chain, and by the support lent to them by accessory considerations and coincidences.

Amongst the works which have thrown most light on a very obscure subject, Prof. Oldenberg's essay, *Ueber die Datirung der ältesten indischen Münz- und Inschriftenreihen*,¹ certainly holds the first place. It is, I believe, sufficient to combine his conclusions with certain results obtained by the labours of Messrs. Bühler, Bhagwanlal Indraji, Bhandarkar, and Fleet, I only mention the most recent publications, to obtain a chronological series, the main points of which appear to be firmly established.

With Prof. Oldenberg, I consider that the Śaka era starts from the coronation of Kanishka, and that it is in this era that the inscriptions of this king and of his Indo-Scythian successors are dated.² With him, I consider that the era of the Guptas, which was also adopted by the kings of Valabhî, should be calculated, in accordance with the evidence of Alberūni, from the year 319 A. D., and that no sufficient reason exists for disturbing one of the rare positive traditions which we have the good fortune to possess.³

This being settled, it remains to determine the chronology of the Satraps of Surāshtra and of the Andhrabhṛityas. Here several synchronisms come to our help.

¹ *Zeitschr. für Numismatik*, Vol. VIII. pp. 289 and ff.

² Prof. Max Müller holds the same opinion, *India; What it can teach us*, p. 291.

³ With regard to the era of the Guptas, I would refer the reader specially to Appendix A. of Prof. Bhandarkar's work, *Early History of the Deccan*. New arguments have been put forward quite recently, which have led Dr. Bühler to the same opinion (cf. Bühler, *Ueber eine Inschrift des Königs Dharmasena IV von Valabhî*, in the *Sitzungsber. der Wiener Akademie*, 1885, pp. 13 and ff. of the reprint). [Since the above was published the admirable researches of Mr. Fleet, contained in the 3rd volume of the *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, have put an end to all debate regarding the era of the Guptas. It has not been necessary for me to modify my original text in consequence, for it maintains the accuracy of the fact, of which Mr. Fleet has proved the certainty; but I cannot deprive myself, *en passant* of the pleasure of rendering a grateful tribute to the fertile labours of this skilful epigraphist.]

An inscription of Nāsik, dated the 19th year of the reign of Vāsīṭhīputa Pulumāyi, and emanating from his mother, Gôtamī Balasiri, refers to his father and predecessor Gôtamīputa Sātakaṇi, as the 'destroyer of the family of the Khaharātas' (*Khaharātavanīsaniravasāsakara*).⁴ We also find at Nāsik a parallel series⁵ of inscriptions emanating from Usavadāta, son-in-law of the 'Satrap Nahapāna, a Khaharāta king,' and even a dedication presented by a minister, Ayama, of this prince. It is in the person of Nahapāna that Gôtamīputa Sātakaṇi must have destroyed the dynasty of the Khaharātas or Khakharātas, for the same locality has preserved for us a document, by which he exercises over it an act of sovereignty. He transfers to a community of ascetics certain lands, which come from Usavadāta, probably the very son-in-law of the dispossessed sovereign.

The reader can see in an ingenious article of Dr. Bühler's,⁶ that the numismatic discoveries of Paṇḍit Bhagwanlal Indraji, on a comparison with epigraphic data, allow us to reconstitute the following series of sovereigns in the dynasty of the Andhrabhṛityas.

Gôtamīputa Sātakaṇi, who reigned at least 24 years.

Pulumāyi Vāsīṭhīputa, who reigned at least 24 years.

Māḍharīputa Sirisēna, who reigned at least 8 years.

Vāsīṭhīputa Chaturapana Sātakaṇi, who reigned at least 13 years.

Siriyaṇa Gôtamīputa Sātakaṇi, who reigned at least 16 years.

It is not certain, but it is at least probable, that the succession was immediate between the second, third, and fourth of these princes.

Rudradāman, the Satrap king, in the celebrated inscription of Gīrnar, tells us how he twice conquered Sātakaṇi, the king of the Dekhan; he only spared him from total destruction by reason of their close relationship. Now, an inscription of Kaṭhēri⁷ has preserved the memory of a queen, daughter of a Kshatrapa king, whose name was composed of two syllables commencing with *ru*, and wife of the king Vāsīṭhīputa Sātakaṇi. Whether the Ru[dra], father of the queen was, as appears very likely, or was not, the Rudradāman of Gīrnar, it remains almost certain that the Sātakaṇi of whom that prince was the contemporary and conqueror is one of the two last princes named in the foregoing table. Fortified by palæographical coincidences which tend to confirm the likelihood, which in itself is very strong, of these facts, we can hold it for proved that Rudradāman belonged to the same time as Vāsīṭhīputa Sātakaṇi, or Siriyaṇa Sātakaṇi.

The third synchronism, together with an indirect verification of the second, gives us a valuable means for approximately fixing the dates, not only relatively but absolutely, of these persons. In a well-known passage, Ptolemy mentions Tīastanes and Siri Polemaios, as sovereigns of Ujjayini and of Paithāna. These two names have been long identified, the first with that of Chashtāna, and the second with that of Siri Pulumāyi. Now Chashtāna is known by the inscriptions as grandfather of Rudradāman; and it is quite easy that he should have been a contemporary of Pulumāyi Vāsīṭhīputa, grandfather or great-grandfather, or at any rate third or fourth predecessor, of the Sātakaṇi, of whom we have just seen that Rudradāman was the contemporary and the conqueror. A remark of Prof. Bhandarkar⁸ contributes a still higher degree of probability to these identifications. Ptolemy tells us that, while the northern parts of the west coast were governed by Siri Polemaios, the southern parts were under the rule of Baleocouros. Now, there has been discovered at Kōlhapur a series of coins,⁹ in which the name of Vīlīvāyākura, whose identity with Baleocouros forces itself on our notice, is associated with that of Vāsīṭhīputa and of Gôtamīputa, to whom we have just been introduced.

⁴ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* IV. 108.

⁵ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* pp. 99 and ff.

⁶ *Indian Antiquary*, 1888, pp. 272 and ff. It will be seen from what follows that I have not been able to place myself in entire accord with the learned author.

⁷ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* V. 78.

⁸ *Early Hist. of the Deccan*, p. 20.

⁹ Cf. Bhagwanlal Indraji, in *J. R. A. S., Bo. XIII.*, 308 and ff.

The terms in which Ptolemy speaks of these sovereigns, Tiastanes, Siri Polemaios and Baleocouros, give us naturally the impression that he speaks of princes of his own time. Without any doubt this conclusion is in no way a forced one. He could, it is true, have drawn upon previous authorities, and his information regarding such distant countries was not necessarily up to date; but, until the contrary is proved, every presumption is in favour of the most simple solution, which makes the princes reign at the same epoch as that in which he wrote the geography, or a short time before. Ptolemy is credited with having composed his book a few years after 150 A. D., and we are, therefore, entitled, *à priori*, to consider that Chashtana and Pulumāyi Vāsīṭhīputa must have been in possession of their power between about 135 and 145. This conclusion, which is admitted by several scholars,¹⁰ will impose itself with yet greater force upon our attention, if it is found to accord with the chronological *data*, which it is possible to collect directly in India. This is exactly the case.

Prof. Oldenberg¹¹ has strongly insisted upon the reasons which prevent us from fixing at a later date than the commencement of the second century the era of the Kshatrapa kings of Gujarāt, that is to say of the dynasty, the founder of which was, as we gather from the inscriptions, Chashtana. The arguments on the basis of which he hesitates to make it coincide with the Śāka era of 78 A. D. appear to me to be less convincing. We know of a Kshatrapa coin bearing not only the date 300, but the date 310 of the Kshatrapa era;¹² the date 83 of the Gupta era, *i. e.* $(319 + 83 =)$ 402 A. D., is the earliest one of their successors in Mālava,¹³ the Guptas, of which we have evidence, and it is hence impossible to bring down the commencement of the Kshatrapa era to a later date than 90 A. D. As it is, on the other hand, certain that the Kshatrapas were not the originators of the era which they employed, — we shall shortly see that it was also used by Nahapāna, — it seems to me that the strongest probabilities lead us to conclude, with Paṇḍits Bhagwanlal and Bhandarkar, that it was the Śāka era of 78 A. D., the era of Kanishka, which they adopted.

Every one is now, I believe, agreed in considering with Messrs. Oldenberg¹⁴ and Bhagwanlal,¹⁵ that Nahapāna was, in Gujarāt, the representative of the race of the Kshaharātas, which was conquered by Gotamīputa Śātakarṇi, and which immediately preceded this dynasty of Kshatrapa Sēnas, of whom Chashtana was the first representative.

It will now be sufficient to mention the dates supplied to us by certain inscriptions; and we shall see how they adjust themselves, and how happily they coincide with the presumptions to which we have come independently.

According to the Girnar inscription, Rudradāman was on the throne in the year 72 of his era, which we suggest to be the Śāka era. Coins of his son Rudrasimha bear the dates 102 to 117, and it is probable that the first-mentioned ones go back to the commencement of his reign.¹⁶ It is, therefore, likely that the reign of his father Rudradāman could not have commenced much before the year 150 A. D., the date of the bursting of the embankment at Girnar. Every indication points to the conclusion that the reign of his father Jayadāman was short, and Chashtana, as founder of the dynasty, could only have come into power at a mature age. There is, therefore, small room for making mistakes, if we allow for these two reigns a period of 20 or 22 years. The accession to power of the Sēnas would thus be placed at about the year 128 or 130 A. D.

An inscription of Junnar,¹⁷ proves that Nahapāna was still king in the year 46 of the era which he employed: the inscriptions of his son-in-law Usavadāta, which are known to us, are earlier, bearing the dates 40, 41, 42. We can thus put the destruction of his power by the

¹⁰ Cf. Bhandarkar, *loc. cit.* Bhagwanlal Indrajī, *art. cit.*

¹¹ *art. cit.* pp. 315 and ff.

¹² Buhler, in Burgess, *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* p. 78.

¹³ Cf., for example, Thomas in Burgess, *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* II. p. 20.

¹⁴ *loc. cit.* pp. 319, and ff.

¹⁵ *Ind. Ant.* 1878, p. 258. al.

¹⁶ Bhagwanlal Indrajī, in *J. R. A. S., Bo. XIII.* p. 315.

¹⁷ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* IV. 103.

Andhras, at about the year 48 or 50 of his era. What is that era? If, hypothetically, we suggest the era of Kanishka, the date 125 to 128 A. D. which we get, agrees so exactly with that to which we are led on the other hand as the date of the coming to power of his conqueror, that the proof seems to be decisive. I may add that, according to a restoration which Dr. Bühler¹⁸ considers as 'almost certain,' Usavadâta, the son-in-law of Nahapâna, in one of his inscriptions calls himself a Saka. It is, therefore, probable that this family of Kshaharâtas held its power, as vassal satraps, from the Turushkas of the dynasty of Kanishka; and nothing could be more natural than that they should have used the era adopted by their suzerains. After them, the family of Sênas must have simply followed their official tradition, as the Valabhî kings did in later years when they succeeded the Guptas. The name of Sâlivâhana by which this era came eventually to be designated, appears to be a recollection of the similar procedure by which the sovereigns of the Dekhan, on their side, appropriated the era founded in the north by the Saka king.

Another result which follows from the above is that we now find the members of the Andhra dynasty, who more immediately interest us here, placed in their chronological position. I have mentioned their names above.

If we take 126 A. D. as the date of the victory of Gotamîputa Sâtakani over Nahapâna, an inscription of the conqueror¹⁹ proves, on the other hand, that this event must have occurred before the 14th year of his reign, for he sends orders dated in that year to the representative of his authority at Nâsik. Various epigraphical monuments testify that he reigned at least 24 years; and we thus get the year $126 + 11$, say 137 A. D., for the end of his reign, and the coming to the throne of his successor Vâsiṭhîputa Pulumâyi. The rule of this prince having lasted at least 24 years, that of Mâḍharîputa Sirisêna at least 8, and that of Vâsiṭhîputa Sâtakani at least 13, we arrive, for the conclusion of this last reign, at least at the date $137 + 24 + 8 + 13 =$ say 182 A. D. Rudradâman, the Kshatraps, having ceased to reign before 180 A. D., it follows that it was certainly Vâsiṭhîputa Sâtakani, and not his successor, who is referred to in the inscription of Gîrnar.

We see how completely all these *data* agree amongst themselves. The verification which is, in my opinion, the most important, consists in the complete accord which this system establishes without any effort, with the presumptions which we are entitled to draw from the mention made by Ptolemy of Chashtana and Pulumâyi. It must be, as we have seen, about the years 135 to 145 A. D. that this mention should *à priori*, lead us to fix the reigns of these personages, and, that too, independently of any preconceived ideas, or of any clue obtained from Indian sources. On the other hand, our deductions, founded on absolutely independent calculations refer the former to the years 130 to 140 or 145, and the second to the years 137 to 161 A. D. In the face of so striking a result it appears to me difficult to avoid recognizing how artificial and how fine-drawn must be the suppositions, by which some writers have sought to weaken the induction which the text of the geographer at once suggests to us.

On the other hand, I must express my entire agreement with Dr. Bühler in the criticism to which he submits the rash attempts which have been risked to reconstitute the chronology of the period anterior to the Andhrabhṛityas. Their contradictions, and especially the positive *data* which are furnished by the monuments, shew how little confidence is deserved by the lists of the *Purâṇas*.

The more this epoch is still enveloped in obscurity, the rarer the means of marking out its historical development, the more important is it to cling with all our power to the marks which we have been able, in my opinion, to fix with confidence. I sum them up here.

1. The Saka era of 78 A. D. is the era founded by Kanishka. His monuments and those of his successors, the last of whom are lost in the obscurity which surrounds the commencement of the Gupta dynasty in 319 A. D., are dated in that era.

¹⁸ Arch. Sur. West. Ind. IV. 101.

¹⁹ Arch. Sur. West. Ind. IV. 15.

2. It is in the same era that the inscriptions and coins, — on the one hand of Nahapana, the Kshaharāta, — on the other hand of the Kshatrapa Sēnas of Gujarāt, — are dated. The monuments, known to belong to the former, relate to the years 118 to 124 A.D., and the rule of the latter dynasty extended from about the year 130 to the end of the fourth century A. D. The great inscription of Rudradāman at Gīrnar dates from the third quarter of the second century of our era.

3. The reigns of the five Andhrabhṛitya kings, whose names I have given above, and the order of whose succession we are enabled to determine with the aid of various monuments, from Gōtamiputa Sātakaṇi to Siriyani Sātakaṇi, fill the greater part of the second century of our era.

These conclusions put us in a position to date several epigraphical monuments which are certainly of decisive importance for the linguistic history of India. It is desirable that we should be able to do more, and to attain to equal certainty both with regard to the preceding period which separates the inscriptions of Aśōka from those of Kanishka, and for the subsequent one. Unfortunately the elements for analogous deductions are not forthcoming, and we are, as a general rule, reduced to indications borrowed from palæography, to which it is prudent to accord but a limited confidence. I should add that, so far as regards the principal question with which we have to deal, this uncertainty very luckily does not appear to have very serious consequences.

There is one class of monuments, the coins, concerning which I have not much to say. M. de Sallet²⁰ has submitted the problems connected with them to an examination at once complete and thorough. I doubt whether the main lines of his conclusions can be seriously altered by later researches. Under any circumstances, I do not believe that the uncertainties which may remain unexplained, or the errors which may require correction, are of such an extent as to compromise the deductions which philology can draw from the legends of the coins.

It would be more essential, but it is more difficult, to fix with confidence the relative dates, and the order of all the inscriptions which belong to the same period.

By the side of those which bear the names of Kanishka, Huviṣka, and Vāsudēva, whose dates, as I admit, are certainly to be referred to the Sāka era, there are others which various indications connect more or less closely with the same series, without its being proved, or even shewn to be probable, that they employ the same era. I refer especially to two characteristic inscriptions in Indo-Bactrian characters, that of Taxila,²¹ dated in the 78th year, and belonging to the great king Mōga, and that of Takhtibahi,²² dated the year 103, and the 26th year of the reign of a king whose name is read as Gudupharas, most probably the same as the Gondophares or Yndopherres of coins and of legend; but if this identification is admitted, and if, on the other hand, we also allow the identification, which has been proposed, of king Mōga with the king Mauas of the coins, there are, from a numismatic point of view,²³ serious difficulties to be met in fixing the epoch from which to count this year 78, so as to calculate these two dates. All that is at any rate certain is that these monuments belong approximately to the same period as those of the Turushka kings; and the study of the former should not be separated from that of the latter.

As regards the two inscriptions of Mathurā²⁴ (No. 8 and No. 9 of Dowson) which are dated in the year 135, and the year 280 respectively, I see no decisive reason against referring them to the series of the Sāka era.

²⁰ *Die Nachfolger Alexanders des Grossen in Baktrien und Indien*. Cf., however, also Gardner and R. S. Poole. *Coins of the Greek and Scythic kings of Bactria and India in the British Museum*.

²¹ Cf. Dowson, *J. R. A. S.* XX. 221 and ff.

²² Dowson, *J. R. A. S.*, N. S. VII. p. 376. Cf. now my *Notes d'Épigraphie Indienne*, in the *Journal Asiatique*, 1890, I, pp. 111 and ff.

²³ Cf. Sallet, *op. cit.* pp. 46, 51, 157.

²⁴ Cf. Dowson, *J. R. A. S.*, N. S. V. pp. 182 and ff.

A certain number of inscriptions, though undated, contain names which enable us to determine their age with some precision. Such are the short dedications of Dasaratha, the grandson of Aśoka, and the inscription of Bharhut, engraved 'under the rule of the Śuṅgas'²⁵ To the same category belong some texts of a higher value, — the inscriptions of Nānāghāt. They are connected with the most ancient of the royal inscriptions of Nāsik,²⁶ that which contains the name of king Kaṇha (Kṛishṇa) of the family of the Śātavāhanas. The reader may be referred to a learned essay which Dr. Bühler has devoted to these inscriptions and their date. It can be seen from what precedes, that I am not able to accept the whole of his conclusions. I consider at least that these monuments belong to the beginning of the dynasty of the Andhrabhṛityas or Śātavāhanas. While I admit that it would not be safe to accept the discrepant evidence of the *Purāṇas* as a solid foundation for calculating the period which elapsed between the kings of Nānāghāt and the series of sovereigns who have left us at Nāsik authentic documents, we should not, at the same time, too lightly discard these confused traditions. Dr. Bühler has been perhaps led to display the more severity towards them because they disagree with the date, in my opinion too ancient, which he attributes to Gōtamīputa Śātakani and his successors. There remains the evidence to be adduced from palæography. Dr. Bühler calculates that this does not allow us to presume a space of more than a century between the inscription of Nānāghāt and those of Gōtamīputa Śātakani at Nāsik. Dr. Bühler's authority in matters of this kind is too considerable to allow me to venture to dispute his opinion, and I will only confess that, if an interval of a hundred years does not appear to him improbable between the characters of Aśoka and those of Nānāghāt, I can scarcely understand how it can be certain that between the engravers of Nānāghāt and those of Nāsik, there did not elapse 200 years or even more. The truth is that, at least for this period, we have no scale of palæographical development graduated by documents to which exception cannot be taken. After all, vexations as these uncertainties are, I do not undertake to reconstitute the history of the Andhrabhṛityas; so far as the aim which I have in view is concerned, it is sufficient to remember that the inscriptions of Nānāghāt certainly fall in the period intermediate between Aśoka and Gōtamīputa Śātakani, and that they are, at least, a century earlier than the latter.

As for the other monuments of the period we are compelled to content ourselves with analogous, though still more valuable conclusions. It is a fortunate circumstance that however desirable it may be in many respects to fix the exact age of each text, these conclusions are in the present case sufficient for us. There are, I believe, very few instances in which we are not in a condition to assert that such or such an inscription is or is not anterior to the line of demarcation which marks the epoch of Rudradāman the Kshatrapa, and his contemporary Śātakani the Andhrabhṛitya. To the period which extends from Aśoka down to these sovereigns belong the edict of Khandagiri and the inscriptions of Rāmnaṭh,²⁷ the inscription of Kaṅgrā,²⁸ as also that of Bēwā,²⁹ and several epigraphs both in the caves of the west coast, as well as in the ruins of Sāñchi,³⁰ of Bharhut,³¹ and Amravati.³² Taking the word in the very wide sense which I have explained above, the dates of these texts are subject to no serious doubts.

It is a matter for regret, that, for the period which follows, I mean the 250 years which extend from the commencement of the 3rd to the middle of the 5th century we are still worse provided. The absence of materials is here almost complete. We shall see, when we explain the linguistic importance of this epoch, how much this is to be regretted. We are hardly entitled to include in this period the inscription of Banavāsi³³ or those of the

²⁵ Cf. Hultzsch, *Ind. Ant.* 1885, p. 138.

²⁷ Cunningham, *Corpus*. Cf. *Ind. Ant.* 1873, pp. 245-246.

²⁸ *Ind. Ant.* 1880, 120.

²⁹ Cunningham, the *Bharhut Stūpa*, and Hoernle, *Ind. Ant.* 1881, 118, 255; 1882, 25; Hultzsch *Z. D. M. G.* XL p. 70.

³⁰ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* Burgess, *Notes on the Amravati Stūpa*.

³¹ Burgess and Bhagwanlal, *Inscript. of the Rock-cut Temples*, p. 100.

³² Bühler, *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* IV. 98, No. 1.

³³ *J. R. A. S.* XX. 254.

³⁴ Cunningham, *Buddhist Stūpas*.

Jaggayapetta Stûpa,³⁴ for they so closely follow the time of Siriyāṇa Sātakaṇi that they really belong to the preceding group. Towards the end of the 4th century, the series of Gupta inscriptions opens with that of Allahabad, engraved in honour of Samudragupta, and with the dedications of Udayagiri and Śāñchi³⁵ contemporary with his successor Chandragupta,³⁶ and dated in the years 82 and 93 of that era, say 401 and 412 A. D. They are followed by the inscriptions of Skandagupta at Gīrnar (138 G. E., i. e., 457 A. D.), and by others more recent.³⁷ From this period the series of monuments is prolonged in fairly sufficient number of specimens.³⁸

But between the commencement of the 3rd century and the first year of the 5th, I know of no inscription which has been dated with certainty. Even those the palaeographical character of which would probably place them in this interval are of great rarity. Amongst the numerous dedications of the caves of the west, there are very few which appear to belong to it.³⁹

We must put aside the most ancient monuments attributed to the dynasty of the Gaṅgas;⁴⁰ for the most experienced authorities in Southern Indian Epigraphy have declared them to be apocryphal.⁴¹ We are thus reduced to a few documents which emanated from the kings of Vēṅgi.

The earliest in point of date would appear to be the donation of king Vijayanandivarman,⁴² which Mr. Burnell, and, agreeing with him, Mr. Fleet, refer to the 4th century. Both these gentlemen refer to the same reign a donation of the 'yuvamahārāja' Vijayabuddhavarman contained in the papers of Sir W. Elliot. It has since been published by Mr. Fleet.⁴³ It seems, however, that the name, which had originally led them astray, is in reality 'Vijayakhaṇḍavarman,' and various circumstances go against the idea of a close connexion between the author of this inscription, and that of the preceding one.⁴⁴ It is, however, none the less one of the most ancient inscriptions of the dynasty of the Pallavas, and dates either from the end of the fourth century or the beginning of the 5th. The language in which it is couched renders it a monument of the very highest interest, and I shall subsequently deal with it again. It is either contemporary with or very little earlier than the donation of Vishṇugōpavarman,⁴⁵ of his brother Simhavarman,⁴⁶ and of Ativarman,⁴⁷ which are referred to the 5th century.

³⁴ *Ind. Ant.* 1882, pp. 258 and ff. Burgess, *Amravati Stûpa*, p. 55. ³⁵ Prinsep, I. 283. ³⁶ Prinsep, I. pp. 246-247.

³⁷ Inscription of Skandagupta at Kuhaon (142) (Prinsep, I. 250), at Indore (146) (*J. A. S. B.* 1874, p. 868), of the column at Bhitari, belonging to a successor of Skandagupta (Prinsep, *loc. cit.* p. 240), of the column of Eran, under Budhagupta (166) (Prinsep, p. 248); the inscriptions of Tōramāya at Eran and at Gwalior. With regard to the other Gupta inscriptions I may also cite here the Jain inscriptions, dated in the year 186 of the Guptas, of which Dr. Hoernle has given a transcription and a revised translation (*Ind. Ant.* 1882, p. 309). — It is now enough once for all to refer to the excellent *Corpus* of Mr. Fleet.

³⁸ I quote, simply as examples, the plates of Gurjara Dadda (458) (Dawson, *J. R. A. S. N. S. I.* 248 and ff.; and Fleet, *Ind. Ant.* 1884, pp. 81, 115); the inscription of Umētā &c. The plates of Jayabhaṭa (*Ind. Ant.* 1876, pp. 109 and ff.) appear to be earlier (429), if Dr. Bühler is correct in referring them to the era of Vikramāditya, but this conjecture appears to me to be very improbable.

³⁹ Nos. 7 — 10 of Kuḍa, *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.*, (IV. 85-86) seem to me to be of slightly later date. I may mention, however, No. 1 of Kaṇhēri, which Dr. Bühler dates in the 4th or 5th century. The inscription is both very short and very obscure, but its date has, nevertheless, in our eyes, an interest, which will become clear later on.

⁴⁰ I refer to the donation of king Chēra Arivarman dated Śāka 169, quoted by Dr. Eggeling (*Ind. Ant.* 1874, p. 152) and published by Mr. Fleet (*Ind. Ant.* 1879, p. 212), and the inscription published by Mr. Rice (*Ind. Ant.* 1878, p. 168), and referred by him to the year 350 of our era. We should add the plates of Merkara (*Ind. Ant.* 1872, p. 360) for which the figures 388, calculated in the Śāka era, gave the date as 466 A. D.

⁴¹ Burnell, *S. I. P.* p. 84. Fleet, *Ind. Ant.* 1883, pp. 111 and ff.

⁴² *Ind. Ant.* 1876, p. 175. Mr. Foulkes has published a donation of Nandivarman, which he believes to belong to the same prince (*Ind. Ant.* 1879, p. 167). The numerous discrepancies which exist in the genealogy, in my opinion, render this suggestion inadmissible; and, if the inscription is not apocryphal, as Mr. Fleet considers (*Ind. Ant.* 1880, p. 101, note), it must emanate from another king of the same name, posterior to this first Nandivarman.

⁴³ *Ind. Ant.* 1880, p. 100.

⁴⁴ Fleet, *loc. cit.*

⁴⁵ Fleet, *Ind. Ant.* 1876, p. 50.

⁴⁶ Fleet, *Ind. Ant.* 1876, p. 154.

⁴⁷ *Ind. Ant.* 1880, p. 102.

But, as I have already said, from this time the harvest of monuments again becomes sufficiently ample for it to be useless to undertake enumerations which would necessarily be incomplete. I lay stress neither on the plates of the earlier Kadambas,⁴⁸ nor on those of the first Gurjaras, Dadda,⁴⁹ or Jayabhāṭa.⁵⁰ They bring us down to a period too modern to affect the questions of formation and origin which alone interest us at the present moment.

These are the known dates of the monuments which enable us to put forward precise conclusions for the chronology of the linguistic history of India. The preceding summary has therefore, been indispensable. By language, or more exactly by grammar and spelling, the epigraphical types divided themselves, in the period under consideration, into two series. The two currents continually intermingle and become confused, but we are, nevertheless, compelled to follow them separately. Of the two sections which follow, the first will be devoted to Mixed Sanskrit and to classical Sanskrit, and the second to monumental Prākṛit and to the literary Prākṛit. I shall commence in each case by detailing the characteristic facts which are furnished by a study of the inscriptions, and shall then examine the general questions which connect themselves with it.

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

(Continued from page 185.)

XXXVII. Third ckhēdasūtram, the vavahāra. We have already seen above, pp. 447, 449, that the three texts dasā, kappa and vavahāra, according to the Āvaśy. 16, 108, are connected as one group. In the arrangement found in the Āvaśy. and in that handed down in the Nandī, vavahāra is placed in the last place after dasā and kappa. This position after the kappa is also allotted to the vavahāra [466] in the penultimate verse of the bhāṣhya⁵⁶ belonging to it, and consequently in Malayagiri's comm., where there are two statements to this effect—in the introduction⁵⁶ and at the conclusion of the seventh udd.⁵⁷ The same conclusion may be drawn from the compound kalpavyavahārau in schol. on Oghaniry. (see p. 449), though there may be here nothing more than a mere reference to the greater brevity of the word kalpa. In the *Ratnasāgara* (see p. 449), however, the vavahāra stands at the head of the ckhēdasūtra.

We have already seen (*ibid.*) that kalpa as vavahāra is attributed especially to Bhadrabāhu and considered as an extract from pūrva 9, 3, 20. According to Āvaśy. 2, 5, Bhadrabāhu (supposing that he is here the speaker) composed at least a niyyutti on it. And we have also seen (p. 446) that the text is divided into ten uddesas⁵⁸ in agreement with the statements in Āvaśy. 16, 108. The contents consists of general regulations in reference to the penances etc., of the clergy and of disciplinary statutes concerning right and wrong—kappati, no kappati.

Each of the uddēsas closes, after the fashion of aṅgas 1—3, with ti bēmi. The text is in prose and well preserved. The Prākṛit bhāṣhya in āryā, is found entire in Malayagiri's very detailed commentary, which is in reality rather a commentary on the bhāṣhya than on the text itself. [467] In the commencement of the very lengthy introduction⁵⁹ we find the relation of the text to the kalpa stated as follows:—kalpādhyayanē abhavat prāyaśchittam uktaṁ, na tu dānaprāyaśchittam dānam; vyavahārē tu dānaprāyaśchittam ālōchanāvīdhīś chā 'bhidhāsyatē.

⁴⁸ *Ind. Ant.* 1877, p. 22; 1878, p. 81.

⁴⁹ Dowson, *J. R. A. S., N. S.*, I, 248; Bhāṇḍārkar, *J. R. A. S., Bo. X.* p. 19.

⁵⁰ Inscriptions of Kāvi, Bihler, *Ind. Ant.* 1876, p. 109; of Umētā, *ibid.* 1878, p. 61.

⁵⁶ kappavavahārāṇaṁ bhāṣam muttūna vittharaṁ savvaṁ.

⁵⁷ uktaṁ kalpādhyayanam, idānīm vyavahārādhyayanam uchyatē.

⁵⁷ pūrvaṁ kalpādhyayanē bhaṇitā.

⁵⁸ Or according to its own schol., also in 3 khaṇḍas (udd. 1, 2; 3—6; 7—10).

⁵⁹ pūthikā (see p. 455), in 2855 gr., corresponding to 182 verses of the bhāṣhya. The entire commentary embraces 2812 gr. f The MS. which I have before me is dated Sāmvat 1565 A. D. 1509.

udd. 1 treats of parihāraṭṭhānam lasting 1, 2, 3 or 4 months, — 2 of the relation of two sāhammiyas, — 3 of teacher and scholar, — 4 of the mēṛā (maryādā) sāhūpaṃ, — 5 of the mēṛā saṃjātīpaṃ, — 6 of mischances (also niggaṃthāna), — 7 of the rājādīnām avagraha, — 8 of the sādhamikāvagraha, — 9 of the āhāra, — 10 of the abhigraha.

See above, p. 445, in reference to the vavahāra as source of the gachhāyāra.

XXXVIII. Fourth chhēdasūtram, the dasāṭ or āvāradasāu, dasās, in fuller form dasāsrutaskandha, in 10 uddesas (uddesapakāla Āvaśy. 16, 100), of which 1 to 9 are called dasā, the eighth is called also ajjhayaṇaṃ and the tenth ajjhayaṇaṃ only. In Āvaśy. 2, 5 the speaker declares himself to be author of a dasāṇaṃ niyyutti whose author tradition (see Jacobi, l. c. p. 12) calls Bhadrabāhu. The great antiquity of the text is proved by the fact that not only is it cited in aṅga 3, 10 under the title Āvāradasāu, but also the names of its ten ajjh. cited there are the same as those given here. See p. 272.

Each of the first seven dasās begins after the fashion of aṅga 1 with the formula: suyaṃ mē āusaṃ ! tēpaṃ [468] bhagavayā ēvaṃ akkhāyaṃ and closes with ti bēmi. After akkhāyaṃ there follows another formula, which briefly says that the contents of the following section is as "thērēhiṃ bhagavamtēhiṃ pannatta," as in up. 3 (p. 388), see Abhayadēva on aṅga 3, 10 f. 288^b. The doctrines in question it refers to the predecessors of the bhagavanta (see also up. 10, p. 423). In the first dasā 20 asamāhiṭṭhānā are treated of, in the second 21 sabalā¹⁰⁰ (sabalāni), in the third 33 āsāyaṇāu, in the fourth 8 gaṇisampadā, in the fifth 10 chittasamāhiṭṭhānā, or, according to V, attasōhi (here there is a legend of a sermon of Mahāvīra at the time of Jiyasatta, king of Vāṇiyagāma, closing with 17 ślōkas), in the sixth 11 uvāsagapaḍimāu, in the seventh 12 bhikkhupaḍimāu. All this deals with regulations having reference to the department of the vipaya, and treats of the course of life and the discipline of the laity and clergy.¹ The method of treatment is short and compact.

The eighth section is called ajjhayaṇaṃ, but in aṅga 3, 10 as in V., pajjōsāvaṇākappō, exceeds the first 7 dasās in its contents and in its extent. Certainly its largest portion has been inserted here at a later period. It is formed of the work called Kalpasūtra and in fact of the entire work of this name in its three parts, according to the MSS. and the Kalpantarvāchyani. Jacobi (Kalpas. pp. 22, 23) has already called our attention to the fact, that in reality only the last (the third) section, [469] which is called "sāmāchārī, rules for yatis," and also paryushaṇākalpa — cf. the title of this book in aṅga 3 and V. — belongs in this place, and that it alone could claim, together with the remaining parts of the dasās, to be ascribed to Bhadrabāhu. The closing words tti bēmi, payyōsaṇākappadasā aṭṭhamāṃ ajjhayaṇaṃ are similar to those of the other dāsāu and substantiates this conclusion. The contents of this section refers to the varshāvāsa, and treats of that which thereby is kappāi and nō k. In the introduction commencing with the legendary formula — tēpaṃ kālēpaṃ — it is stated how Mahāvīra acted in these cases. The following portions, each of whose sentences invariably begins with a stereotyped refrain, is at the end ascribed to Mahāvīra in special legendary form likewise introduced by tēpaṃ kālēpaṃ. I will refer to the other parts of the Kalpasūtra below.

The ninth dasā, also called mōhaṇiyyaṭṭhāṇaṃ, has the usual legendary beginning: tēpaṃ kālēpaṃ . . , and tells of a sermon of Mahāvīra under king Kōṇiya of Champā in reference to the 30 (so also aṅga 3) mōhaṭṭhāṇāim. The portion dealing with this sermon consists of 39 ślōkas, for the most part with the refrain: mahāmōhaṃ pakuvvaī. The conclusion is ti bēmi.

The tenth book, āyātīṭṭhāṇaṃ² commences with the usual formula: tēpaṃ kālēpaṃ, and tells in great detail³ how Sēṇia [470] Bhimbhisāra, king of Rāyagiha, together with his spouse

¹⁰⁰ Cf. Āv. 18, 94 — 99, and Praśnavyāk. conclusion (Leumann).

¹ Cf. Āvaśy. 16, 17 fg.

² ājananam ājēti(h) saṃmūrchhanagabhbhōpapātato janma, tasyāḥ sthānaṃ saṃsārah Abhayadēva on aṅga 3, 10 (289a) in the introduction.

³ It refers to up. 1.

Chellana, listened to a sermon of Mahāvīra. The sight of the princely splendour turned the thoughts of the followers of Mahāvīra to worldly things, to rebuke which Mahāvīra preaches a lengthy sermon on the excellence of his doctrine, divided into 10 §§ and beginning with the same refrain.⁴ Nor does he forget to mention the rewards of those who follow his teachings. The result of this sermon was that his audience were delighted and Mahāvīra continued to preach in Rājagṛīha.

The legendary excursi of the last dasāu (5, 8, 9 and 10) in reference to Mahāvīra are doubtless the cause of the introduction of the Kalpasūtra, the first part of which treats especially of the life of Mahāvīra.

The Kalpasūtram was the first Jain text which was made known, in 1848, in the very faulty translation of Rev. J. Stevenson. It is now carefully edited by H. Jacobi, 1879, to whose instructive introduction I have so often referred.

We have already observed, that of the three parts of which it is composed, the last alone can claim to belong to the dasāu. The two other parts were originally not connected. Each of them is divided into three portions, the first of which contains the history of Mahāvīra, the second that of his 23 predecessors, the third a list of his successors, [471] Thêrāvali, to Dêviddhi-khamāsamaṇa, the nominal redactor of the 45 āgama.

This Thêrāvali agrees as regards each of its first twelve parts with those statements which are found in the thêrāvali of the Nandī and of the Āvaśyakasūtra, and in the later tradition of the Jains (rishimaṇḍalasūtra of the Dharmaghôsha etc.). But from this point on there is no such harmony. The list found here is the most complete, since it embraces a large number of the lateral branches proceeding from each of the patriarchs; and contains all sorts of divergences from the other lists. Jacobi distinguishes "four or five distinct treatises" (p. 23).

It is self-evident that any connection is impossible between this Thêrāvali and Bhaddabāhu, the nominal author of the Kalpasūtra — see below — who appears in the seventh place in the list of patriarchs. The Thêrāvali contains eleven members more (ajja Vaira, Vajrasvāmin, as number 16) nor did it belong originally to the Kalpasūtra. This conclusion holds good also in the case of the account of the 23 predecessors of Vīra which introduces it. In this account we find some few details in reference to two of Vīra's immediate predecessors, Pāsa and Aritthanēṇḍ, and in reference to Usabha who is placed first in the series. The other predecessors are treated of in a very few words. The relation is retrogressive, beginning with the 23rd. We find no mention that Malli (Mali in the text of Jacobi) was a woman.

The intention of collecting everything that had reference to Jainism is manifest in the addition [472] (see Stevenson, p. 99) of these two sections, in reference to the successors and predecessors of Mahāvīra, to the main part of the Kalpasūtra which treated of his life.

This main portion contains towards the close (§ 148) statements mentioning the dates 980 and 993 after Vīra. According to Jacobi (p. 23) it is self-evident that these dates do not "refer to the author, but to Dêvarddhiganim, the editor of the Kalpasūtra." Tradition places Bhadrabāhu, the nominal author of the Kalpasūtra, in the year 170 after Vīra (see Jacobi, p. 114). But as far as I can see, an error or confusion has brought it about that the Kalpasūtra has been ascribed to Bhadrabāhu, as tradition, e. g. the introduction to the Kalpāntarvāchyaṇi, states. In the well attested statement (see above, p. 449) that the Kalpavyavahārau was extracted from pūrva 9, 3, 20 by Bhadrabāhu, we must not understand by "kalpa" the Kalpasūtram, but the chhēdasūtra 5, a conclusion that may be drawn from the statements in reference to the division of the two texts kappa and vavahāra, which is found in Āvaśy. 16, 109. The similar statement concerning the dasa-kappa-vyavahāra in the Rishimaṇḍalasūtra (Jacobi, p. 11) is, after a consideration of this passage of the Āvaśy., not to be referred, as Jacobi refers it, to "the

* . . māsē dhammē pannattē, iṇam ēva nuggantthē pāvayaṇē, sa chē anuttarē padipunnē kēvalē . . (cf. Anupapāt, § 56, p. 62, ed. Leumann).

ten kalpas and the Vyavahāra," but (see p. 357, 450) to the three chhēdasūtras 3—5: the dasāu, the vavahāra and the kappa.⁵

Personally I am inclined on the strength of § 148 to hold Dēvarddhigaṇi as the editor, and and even as the [473] "author" of the chief part of the Kalpasūtra. I will even go a step farther and assert that in reality the Kalpasūtram, or its present essential part, has no claim to this title, which is at complete variance with its contents. It has received this name after its junction with the paryuṣaṇākālpa, the eighth chapter of the dasāu. This ancient title (see p. 468) is cited in the beginning of the saṁdēhaviśaushadhi as a collective title of the work. See Jacobi, p. 99.

The Paṁchanamaskāra, placed "keshuchid ādarśeshu" at the commencement of the text, is known to us from aṅga 3 and upāṅga 4. It is followed here as in up. 4 by the passage in its praise, which is supposed to date back to Vajra (see Kup. 811), and is designed to glorify this commencement. This passage of the paṁchanam. contains the form havaï — and not *hoi* as in up. 4 — which in more modern times is regarded as the only well attested form. See p. 393, §§ 1, 2, which contain the recital so obnoxious to the Digambara (see Jacobi, p. 22) — see p. 261 — that Mahāvīra first "entered the womb of (the māhaṇi) Dēvaṇandā⁶ before he was placed (§ 21) in that of (the khattiyāṇi) Trisālā⁷", are borrowed outright from aṅga 1. Jacobi, p. 23, considers the portion containing the 14 dreams (§§ 33—46), with their long, complex compounds, as a secondary addition, since it is not in harmony with the prevailing "archaic style" of the text. I should prefer to regard the solemnity of the subject as the cause of these stylistic differences. [474] Upon such occasions the aṅgas contain numerous stylistic excrescences, which, it should be remarked, occur not infrequently in other parts of the Kalpasūtra. The differences of this kind in §§ 33—46 (or does J. extend the description of the dreams further than 46 ?) may therefore, I should think, be reduced to a minimum.

The historical kernel of the recital is exceedingly small. Up to § 96 (incl.) the events before the birth of Mahāvīra alone are treated of. The following §§ to 111 discuss the birth, naming, childhood of M. and his life as gihattha. It is noteworthy that there is no mention of foreign nurses, as is usual in the aṅgas and upāṅgas on such occasions, nor are the 72 kalās etc. referred to. The enumeration of the Brahminical sciences in § 10 is the usual one, which we have already met with in aṅga 5. The recital as to how Mahāvīra: anagāriyam paivvaē (§ 116), and of his further development up to the time of his death (§ 132) is devoid of every particle of life. There is no trace of the many legends concerning him which we find scattered here and there in the aṅgas, etc. They have not been made use of at all; hence the whole makes a most unsavoury impression as regards any biographical information. In § 147 the mention of the 55 ajjhayaṇas of the pāvaphalavivāyāṇi (see p. 271) is of interest, as also that of the 36 apuṭṭhavāyaṇāṇi, which, according to Jacobi, p. 114, are to be referred to the uttarajjhayaṇam.

We have in the work entitled *Kalpāntarvāchyāni*, a production partly in Prakṛit, partly in Sanskrit, and in a mixture of the two [475]. After a self-evident introduction in reference to the ten forms of the kalpa: āchēlukka (achēlatvam), uddesia (auddeśika piṇḍa), sijjāyara (sijjātārō [sāyyā⁸] vasatisvāmī), rāyapiṇḍa (presents from the king), kiikammē (kriti⁹), vāya (vrata¹⁰), jittha (jyeshthātvaṁ), paḍikkamaṇē, māsaṁ (māsakālpaḥ), pajjōvasaṇakappē (varshāsu chaturmāsāvasthānarūpaḥ), in reference to the pūrvas, out of the ninth of which the śrīkalpa of Bhadrabāhu, "uddhṛita," etc., is the Kalpāntar., in loose connection with the text of the Kalpasūtra, makes the text of the latter the point of departure for the insertion of a large number of legends and other statements in prose and verse. The frequent mention of Hēmachandrasūri and of Mānatuṅgasūri, Malayagiri, of the Vāmanaṁ, Sarasvatīkaṇṭhābharaṇam (as vyākara-

⁵ We find, however, mention made of a ten-fold division of the kalpa, e. g. in the introduction to the *Kalpāntarvāchyāni*. See p. 475.

⁶ Wife of Usabhadatta, cf. Wilson Sel. W. 1, 292 (see Bhagav. 9, 38, Leum.).

⁷ Wife of Siddhattha of the Nāya race.

nam !!) and *Sârasvataṃ vyākaraṇaṃ* shows that it was composed at a tolerably recent date. In general it may be said that there is a large amount of citations collected here. Of especial interest is the peculiar attempt made in the introduction to prove the great age of the *Jināsāsaṇam* from supposed Vedic passages, as the two “*vaiśvadēva-riçau Yajurvêdêḥ* :” *ôm riṣabhaṃ pavitraṃ puruhûtaṃ adhvaraṃ yajneshu nagnaṃ paramaṃ pavitraṃ | śrutadharaṃ yajnapatipradhānaṃ ṛituryajana (!) paśum indram āhavê 'ti svāhā, and : trātāram indram riṣabhaṃ vadaṃti anitāram indram tam arishtaṇēmim bhavê, subhavaṃ supârsvam indram | havê tu śakra ajitaṃ jineṃdraṃ tad vardhamānaṃ puruhûtaṃ indram svāhā, and also* Vs. 31, 18, *Rik* 2, 80, 6 etc. all of which is cited [476] incorrectly!⁹ The detailed enumeration of the Brahminical sciences in § 10 contains much of interest (18 purāṇas, 18 smṛitis, 18 vyākaraṇas). The foreign serving-women are enumerated in § 16, essentially in the regular way : — *khujjât chilâtô vāmanât vadabhtô babbarât paūsiât jōpiât palhaviât isipât châruiṇiât lāsīât laūsiât dēmalât simhalât ābariât (!) puliṃdât pakkanât maruṃdât bahalât sabarât pārasīât jātiyā dāsyah*. — On § 108 : *bhagavatô lekhanasālakaraṇaprārāmbhō likhyatê* (in *Prākṛit*), — on § 209 a double enumeration of the 72 kalās and of the 18 lipayas — see above p. 400 — on § 211, 64 mahilāguṇās.

The oldest of the commentaries to which I have had access is the *Samdēhavishausadhiri of Jinaprabhamuni*, composed in Ayodhyā A.D. 1307 ; at the end there is added a commentary to a *paryuṣaṇākalanirukti*. Both texts are composed in *Prākṛit*, and the commentary is based especially on the *nīsthachūṛṇi*. This fact recalls chap. 8 of *chhēdasūtra* 4.

XXXIX. Fifth *chhēdasūtram*, the *bṛihatkalpa*, in 6 uddēśas. Ordinances for the clergy of both sexes (*niggaṃtha* and *niggaṃthi*) in reference to that which is proper (*kappati*) and that which is not (*nô kappati*).

The agreement in reference to the division into 6 uddēśas shews that it is our text which (p. 446 ff.) is designated in the *Āvaśy.* 16, 109 in connection with *dasā* and *vavahara* and under the name of *kappa* simply.

[477] We shall have to recognize it under the designation of *kappa*, or *kalpādhyayana*, in other passages (see pp. 449, 472) where there is mention made of the extraction of *kalpavyavahāra* from *pūrva* 9, 8, 20 by *Bhadrabāhu*. Its designation as *bṛihatkalpa*, or *vṛihatsādhukalpa* is unsuitable if we regard the diminutive size of the text (only 475 gr.). The conclusion (*ti bēmi*) of udd. 4 and 6 is worthy of note.

The old *bhāṣhya* in *Prākṛit āryās*, belonging to this text, is designated simply as *kalpa-bhāṣhya*, and is an enlargement of the “*kappassa nijjuttī*,” which the author of the *Āvaśy.* declares that he composed (2, 7). See *Kielhorn* (in the Report on the Search of Sanskrit MSS. 1880-81, pp. ix. x.), in reference to an old MSS. of it (*Saṃvat* 1218), and to its very curious use of letters of the alphabet to denote numerical notation.¹⁰ The commencement differs considerably from that in a palm-leaf MS. similar to this, but much younger (*Saṃvat* 1334), of which the Berlin Library possess a copy made on transparent paper. The commencement of the Berlin MS. — after prefacing the first 6 §§ of the text — is *namô arahaṃtāṇaṃ, kātṭha namokkāraṃ titthayaṛāṇaṃ tilōyamaḥiyāṇaṃ | kappavvavahāraṇaṃ vakkhānaviḥiṃ pavakkhāmi ||*

XI. The sixth *chhēdasūtram* is called *pañchakalpa*¹¹ in *Bühler's* list ; — see p. 226. I have not had access to a text of this name, which is repeatedly mentioned (see pp. 448, 449)

⁹ I am unable to explain the first passage, the second is manifestly *Rik* 6, 47, 11 (*Ts.* 1, 6, 12, 5) : *trātāram indram avitāram indram havê havê suhavaṃ śtūram indram | hvayāmi śakraṃ puruhûtaṃ indram svasti nō maghavâ dhātṃ indrah ||* The words of the text which I have enclosed in brackets above do not occur here.

¹⁰ *na chē 'dam Jināsāsanam arvachinaṃ, vēdādishv api tadvachanât, tathā hi : vēdēshu jinapramāṇāṅgulā (P) darvī, tathā Yajurvêdē vaiśvadēva-riçau . . .*

¹¹ On this see *Bhagvanlal Indraji* on the ancient Nāgari Numerals in the *Indian Antiquary*, 6, 42 fg. (1877) and *Bühler, ibid.* p. 47 fg.

¹² In *Kielhorn's* report, p. 94, there is mention made of a *pañchakalpasūtrachūṛṇi* by *Āmradevachārya*.

both in *Āvi.* and *V.*, together with a *jītakappa*. According to the *Vichārāmr̥itasamgraha*, the *pañchakappa* is a work of *Samghadāsavāchaka*, while the *jītakalpa* belongs to the *Jinabhadraganikshamā*[478]*śramaṇa*.¹² We find in it citations from both texts. The *jītakalpa* is also enumerated in the *Ratnasāgara*, p. 507, as the sixth *chhēdasūtram*. *Raj. L. Mitra*, however (see p. 227 above), mentions it as the last of his "five *Kalpasūtras*."

In lieu of commenting upon a text of the name of *pañchakalpa* I will at least remark on the *jītakalpa*, which is mentioned together with it, that a *śrāddhajītakalpa* in 141 *Prākṛit-gāthās* actually exists. It treats of the *prāyaścitta*, which suits the character of the *chhēdasūtras* exactly, but is referred to a definite author, *Dharmaghōsha*, scholar of *Dēvēndramuniśvara*. In the anonymous commentary on it it is designated as composed *upanishatkalpa*(!)-*kalpa-vyavahāra-niśīthayati**jītakalpānusārēṇa*. In the commentary reference is paid to the *pravachanam* as *sāmāyikādibindusāraparyamtaṁ*, and in v. 58 erroneous doctrines and *pāṣaṇḍin* are treated of in detail. Then the *giatthās* (see above, pp. 437, 450, 464), to which the text refers in v. 141, are expressly explained as *śrīniśīthādichhēdagraṁthārthasūtradharāḥ*.¹³ From all this we may draw the conclusion that the text is closely, [479] if not directly connected with the *chhēdasūtras*.

We have already mentioned in reference to the *mahākappa*, *Āvaśy.* 8, ss, above pp. 446, 447, that the *Nandī* in its *anaṅgapavittā* list recognizes the existence of a *mahākappasuaṁ*, a *chullakappasuaṁ*, and a *kappiyākappiṁ*. In the scholiast *ibid.* we find the following explanation: *kalpākalpapratipādakam adhyayanam kalpākalpaṁ; tathā kalpaḥ sthavirakalpādiḥ, tat pratipādakam śrūtaṁ kalpasrūtaṁ, tach cha dvidhā: kshullakakalp° mahākalp° cha, tatrai°kam alpagraṁtham alpārtham, dvitīyam mahāgraṁtham mahārtham cha*. There is, therefore, no doubt but that texts of this class existed.¹⁴

MISCELLANEA.

NOTES ON THE CHINBOKS, CHINBONS, AND YINDUS OF THE CHIN FRONTIER OF BURMA.¹

Geography.—The *Wēlaung Chins* inhabit the villages on the head waters of the *Myitpā* river. They are bounded on the north and west by *Baungshē Chins*, on the south by *Chinbōks*, and on the east by *Taungṣās* of the villages round *Wēpet*, which is distant four days' journey.

The *Chinbōks* live in the hills from the *Mō* River down to the *Sōchaung*.² They are bounded on the north by *Wēlaung* and *Baungshē Chins*, on the east by the *Burmans*, on the west by the *Arakan Yōmās*, on the south by the *Yindu Chins*.

The *Yindus* inhabit the valleys of the *Salinchaung* and the northern end of the *Mōn Valley*,

bounded on the south by the *Chinbōns*,—the other boundaries being the same as those of the *Chinbōks*.

The *Chinbōns* inhabit the southern end of the *Mōnchaung* and stretch across the *Arakan Yōmās* into the valley of the *Pichaung*. They are bounded on the south by the *Chinbōns* of the *Minbu* frontier, on the east by the *Burmans*, on the west by the *Arakanese*.

History.—The *Wēlaung Chins* are stated to be of *Baungshē* origin. The *Chinbōks* claim a similar origin. The *Yindus* state that their origin is similar to that of the *Taungṣās*, an industrious race, who inhabit the *Yō* and *Myitpā* Valleys in *Burmese* territory, and who claim to have come

¹² See above, pp. 427, 430, where both texts are counted in with the *pañnas*. There are there several other texts ascribed to *Jinabhadra*. The passage reads: *Jinabha° śramaṇa kṛitō jītakalpaḥ, kshetrasamāsah, samgrahaṇi viśeṣanavattī cha*.

¹³ In the scholiast on *Vichārāmr̥itasamgraha* the following explanation for *Jīyakappa* is found in citation from the *Pañchakappa*: *jaṁ jassa cha pachoḥhittam āyariyaparamparāyaiviruddham | jōgā ya bahuvihī yā ēsō khalu jīyakappō u ||*;—and the word *jīyam* is *ibid.* explained as follows:—*jaṁ bahūhiṁ giyatthēhiṁ āṇṇam tam jīyam uchitam āchittam ity anarthāntaram vyavahārachūrpīthē, jītam nāma prabhūtanēkagītārthakṛitā maryādā, tatpratipādanō graṁthō°py upachārāt*.

¹⁴ Compare, also, the title of *upāṅga* 9.

¹ Notes, dated the 20th April 1890, by Lieutenant E. M. Rainey, Commandant, Chin Frontier Levy, regarding the Chin tribes bordering on the *Yō* Country in the *Pakōkku* District, and printed originally as a Government paper by the Chief Commissioner, Burma. [The original paper is very difficult reading, owing to want of care in composition. — *ś* as *aw* in 'awful' throughout.—Ed.]

² [The word *chūng* in such compounds means 'stream' or 'river'.—Ed.]

from Pôpâ Hill. The Chinbôns, further south, point out a rock, which they state is the body of a *min* or official, who was killed in a quarrel with his brother, when they were emigrating from Pôpâ, and was turned into a stone. The brother returned to Pôpâ. The Chinbôns claim Burman origin. Further than this the Chins appear to have no history. In appearance they resemble Burmans, though some have better features.

Languages.—The four villages on the head waters of the Myitpâ speak two dialects: the village of Wêlaung having a dialect of its own, differing from that of the other three.

There are three distinct dialects of the Chinbôk language,—the northern, spoken from the Mò to the north bank of the Chè with slight variation; the central, spoken by the south bank of Chè and the Chauksitchaung; the southern, spoken by the Kadin and Sôchaung Chins.

The Yindus speak a language of their own; while the Chinbôns speak a language which is identical with that spoken by the Chins, who live in the Laungshê township, and to whom they are related. There is no written language.

Government.—There appears to have been no attempt at government further than an incomplete village system. Each village has a *thugyi*.³ The title is hereditary, and does not necessarily indicate a man of influence. There is generally in each group of villages some man (or perhaps two of three), who is looked up to and respected either for being a brave sportsman or raider, or for having a knowledge of Burmese, or for some special qualification. These are the men who really lead the people.

Quarrels are wiped out with blood only. There are no laws, but certain customs, which all observe.⁴

Religion.—There is no religion further than propitiating and consulting *nâts* or spirits. The Chinbôks appear to be perfect slaves to their *nâts* (spirits). To propitiate *nâts* an animal must be slaughtered; buffaloes, bullocks, *maipân*, goats, pigs, fowls, and dogs are chiefly used for this purpose; the three latter being more commonly used as they are so prolific. All are afterwards eaten, if the offering was sacrificed near home; but when raiding, on a journey, passing through notoriously unhealthy jungles, &c., sacrifices are frequently made, animals being carried on purpose. For this purpose dogs are preferred,

as they follow and require no carriage. *Nâts* are consulted in a similar manner, the direction in which the blood flows, &c., being one of the signs. Eggs are also used for these purposes, being blown as we blow them for egg-collections, *i.e.*, with a hole at each end. They are afterwards painted and stuck on a stick, as also are cocks' feathers. Rows of these sticks are frequently seen across paths.

Raids are frequently abandoned at the last moment and after travelling long distances, if the omens are unfavourable. When *nâts* are consulted or propitiated near home, every one gets drunk off home-brewed rice-beer. Tom-toms, music, and dancing accompany the ceremonies. *Nâts* are sometimes humbugged by the wily Chins, an example of which will be found under the heading **Marriages**. They do not trouble about a future world. There are no priests.

Medicine.—Medical science and surgery are unknown. No medicines are used. When a person falls sick the *nâts* are consulted or propitiated: consulted to ascertain if the patient will recover or not; propitiated in hopes that the patient will be spared. The principal diseases are fever, bowel-complaints, skin diseases, and wounds.

Dress, Arms, Customs, &c.—The Wêlaung and Kwônân Chins more closely resemble the Baungshês than the Chinbôks; but, as I have seen but little of them, I will not attempt to describe them.

The dress of all the Chinbôks from the Mò down to the Chè is much the same everywhere, though there are slight differences. Those who inhabit the Chauksit, Kadin, and Sò streams wear a sort of compromise between the dress of the Chinbôks and of the Yindus. The dress proper of a Chinbôk man (*see Plate A*) consists of a very small *laungôf*, as worn by natives of India when wrestling, and a piece of cloth, about three feet in length and one in breadth, which is folded and hung behind, being suspended by bits of string across the shoulders. The chief object of this cloth is apparently to have something warm to sit upon when the ground is cold. The women weave the clothes, and, when new, they are generally striped red and blue.

The dress of a woman (*see Plate A*) consists of a garment like a short jersey without sleeves and with an open V-shaped throat; also of a small *laungôf*, which shows about 6 inches below the jacket. These jackets are also home-made and of similar patterns to the men's garments.

³ *i.e.*, *Dôjît* = in Burma the man who actually collects the revenue and is a kind of village headman.

⁴ [These have to a certain extent been reduced to writing: *vide* Maung Tet Pyo's *Customary Law of the Chin Tribe*. Rangoon, Government Press, 1884.—Ed.]



A Chinbök man.



A Chinbök woman.



Chinbök woman.



Chinbön woman



Yindu woman.



Chinbök in full dress



A Yindu man



A Yindu woman.

In the presence of strangers the women either stand or kneel. Any other position they could not with modesty or decency assume on account of their scanty skirts.

The men tie up their hair with bits of rag,—red for choice. The hair is grown long.

In the cold weather men and women wrap blankets of Burmese or European manufacture round their shoulders.

The Yindu man (*see Plate B*) wears a *laingôô*, similar to that worn by the Chinbôks, and also a loose blouse, without sleeves and open at the throat, which reaches down to below the knees. Except in cold weather, they take their arms out of the sleeve-holes and wind the upper part of the garment round their waists. The dress of the women (*see Plate B*) is similar to that of the Chinbôk women, except that the Yindu women, as well as the men, wear the blouse I have described above in addition to their other garments. The Yindus also use extra wraps and blankets in the cold weather.

The dress of the more civilized Chinbôns is exactly similar to that worn by the hundreds of emigrated Chinbôns, who live in the Laungshê township, and closely resembles the dress of the Burmans. The less civilized Chinbôns, who live on the Arakan side of the Yômas, wear what can hardly be called even an apology for clothing. It is stated that some even use the bark of trees to hide their nakedness. The Biblical fig-leaf would be more covering than was worn by some of the villagers we met.

Ornaments.—The clothing above described is supplemented by various ornaments. To begin with, the head is often decorated with coils of beads of different colours, *kaur*s, &c. Brass skewers are generally stuck into the hair, and, in the case of the Yindus, are generally beautified by tassels of goat's hair dyed red or bunches of the teeth of the hog-deer. These skewers are used for scratching their heads, which are full of lice. Sometimes bone, ivory, bamboo, or porcupine quill skewers are worn. Feathers are universally used as head decorations by the men. Sometimes only a few, generally white cocks' feathers, are stuck into the topknot, for they wear their hair like Burmans: sometimes the whole of a cock's tail and part of the back is worn. In the latter case the bird is skinned, and the part to be worn is dried and stretched on a bamboo frame with a bamboo skewer to stick into the hair. This arrangement is worn at the back of the head and presents a peculiarly ludicrous appearance. Green parrots' feathers

are also used. Women wear skewers in their hair, but no feathers.

Necklaces are much worn by both men and women. They are made of beads of all kinds, glass marbles with holes drilled through them, white metal bands, little bells like ferret-bells, cockspurs, teeth of hog-deer, cockle shells, *kaur*s, coral, and stones, according to fancy.

Earrings of one pattern only are worn by men; they are plain flat rings about two inches in diameter, supposed to be made of gold, but are probably generally of brass. They can be put on or off at pleasure by pressing the ends in opposite directions. The elasticity of the metal keeps them closed under ordinary circumstances. The holes in the ears are much pulled down by the weight of these rings. The women have large holes in their ears, in which they stuff thin strips of bamboo tightly rolled up. The only women I have seen actually wearing earrings were some Chinbôk women on the Maungchaung, who wore bits of telegraph-wire about five inches long bent into an oval-shaped ring!

Bracelets of brass wire are much worn by the men, sometimes nearly the whole of the right forearm being enveloped in rounds of wire. They seldom wear them on the left arm. The women do not wear brass, but a white-metal bracelet.

Wristlets to protect the left arm from the bow-string are always worn by men. Among the Chinbôks they are made of cane wicker-work lacquered over; but sometimes a strip of leather is used. These wristlets are about six inches in length and are frequently ornamented with bells. The Yindus wind a piece of string or rope round their wrists in lieu of the wristlets described above.

The Chinbôks of the Chêchaung wear long brass guards, enveloping the whole of the back of the left arm up to the elbow, which are kept in position by the wristlets. They are intended partly to protect the arm from dagger-wounds when fighting, and partly for ornament.

Arms and Accoutrements.—Among the Chinbôks and Yindus every male carries a bow (*see Plate C*) from the time he begins to toddle. It is made of bamboo, well seasoned by being smoked for several years over the fireplace in the hut. It takes five years' seasoning to thoroughly mature a bow. The length of the bow of an adult is usually about four feet. It is thickest at the centre and tapers to the ends, where it is notched to hold the string. The string is made of cotton, sometimes plaited with bamboo and other fibres. When bows are not in use they are frequently unstrung.

The arrows are carried in a quiver or basket (see *Plate C*) on the left side. They are about a foot and a half in length (the shaft being made of bamboo about the thickness of a pencil), and are neatly tipped with feathers or bamboo shavings. The heads (see *Plate C*) are of several kinds. For war purposes and for killing big game iron heads are used. These again are of different shapes and various sizes, some being barbed and some lozenge-shaped. The other heads they use are hardened-wood points spliced on bone-heads for shooting fish,—these are said to be very deadly for this purpose,—and, lastly, shafts with the points sharpened for shooting birds.

The arrows with iron heads carry 150 yards and further, and are very deadly, killing bear, tiger, deer, &c., at 80 yards range. Ohins do not poison their arrows, and usually keep them bright and clean. But, as they use their arrows time after time whenever they can find them again, and as wounded animals frequently escape only to die afterwards in the jungles, and as these arrows, which are frequently pulled out of the carcasses of animals in a putrid state, are used indiscriminately with those that are clean, blood-poisoning is very likely to follow an arrow wound. This has probably given rise to the idea that they poison their arrows by sticking them into dead animals.

The only other weapon which every man carries is a dagger (see *Plate C*) a little over a foot in length, worn in war-time in a bone scabbard on the right side attached to the shield or rather to the leather breast-plate (see *Plate C*). When engaged in peaceful pursuits it is stuck into a basket, worn on the right side, in which there is a sheath to receive it (see *Plate C*). The bone scabbard mentioned above is the shoulder-blade of a buffalo or bullock with a bamboo back.

These daggers are used both for fighting and for cutting up food, &c. The people make great use of them when fighting among themselves, which they frequently do when drunk. It costs nothing to stick a knife into a man, while if he were shot with an arrow and afterwards escaped, the arrow-head, which is valuable, would be lost.

Many men carry spears (see *Plate C*), which resemble Burman spears:—in fact, many are obtained from Burmans.

Every man wears a kind of leather armour. It consists of a strip of bent buffalo hide, about nine inches to one foot broad, reaching from the

waist in front to the small of the back behind. It is worn across the left shoulder, like the sash of a military officer, the ends being tied together at the right side with a string, to which the dagger in its bone sheath is attached. In the case of the Yindus this armour is frequently made of cane basket-work thickly covered with *kauris*. The Chinbôks also frequently adorn theirs with *kauris* and small bells like ferret-bells.

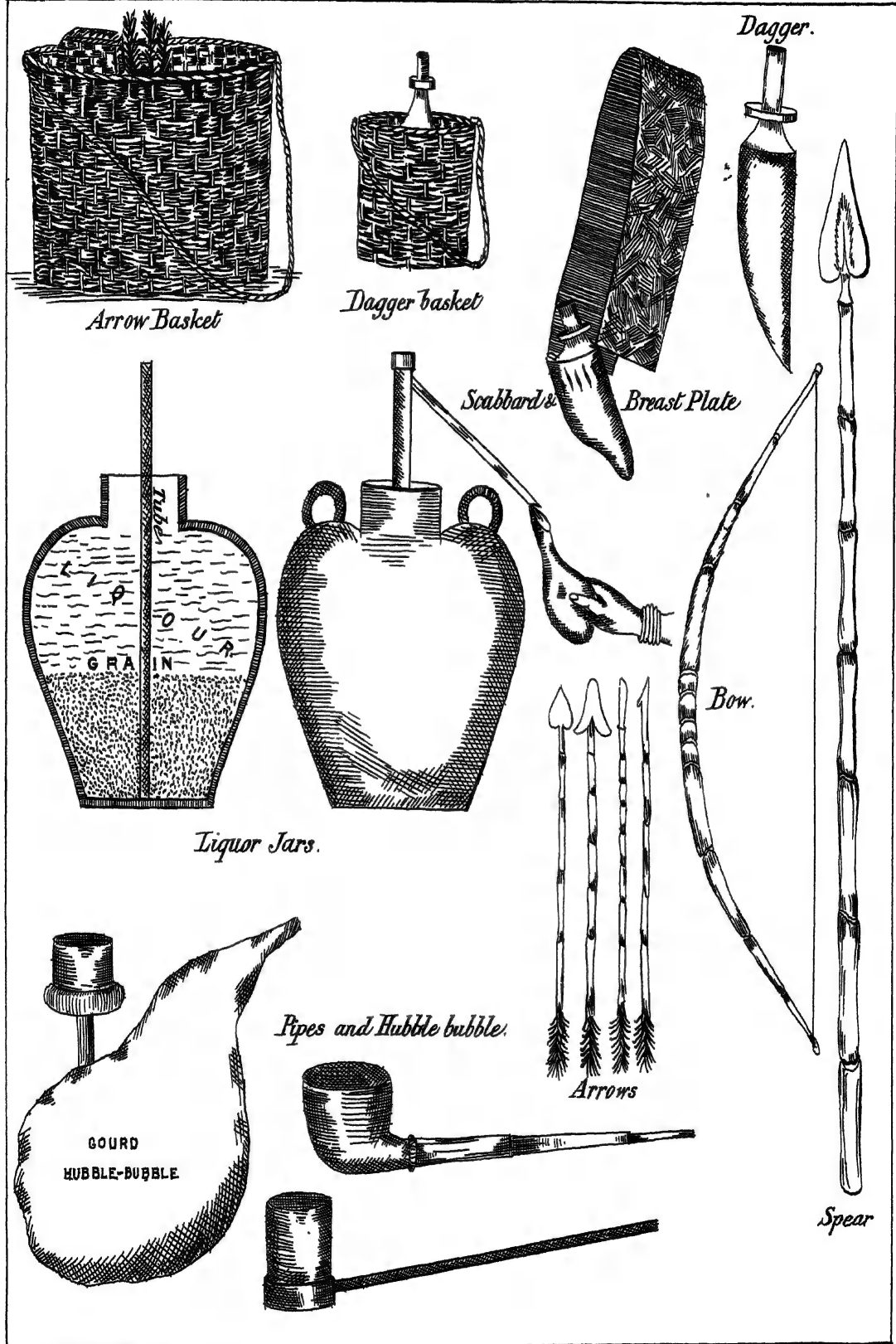
The arrows are carried as follows:—A neat basket, generally measuring about one foot four inches in depth, one foot eight inches in length, and eight inches in breadth, is slung on the right shoulder, hanging therefore on the left side. It is divided into compartments. Nearest the front a bamboo quiver containing the iron-headed arrows is kept in place by cane loops in the basket. This holds about twelve arrows, and has a top, sometimes of bamboo or canework lacquered over, and sometimes of bamboo ornamented with red beads. This top is attached by a string to the breastplate, the string being frequently adorned with small bells. The next compartment in the basket contains a somewhat smaller bamboo, which acts as a box for tobacco, tinder, steel, and flint. The tinder used generally consists of bamboo filings. The lid of this 'box' is generally ornamented with red seeds. The rest of the basket holds a pipe, arrows without heads, and odds and ends. Outside the basket at the back is fixed a small bamboo holding a spare bowstring.

On the left [? Ed.] side a basket, measuring one foot in depth and length, and eight inches in breadth is generally worn. In this food, &c., is carried. It has a compartment, into which the dagger fits as already described.⁸

The pipes smoked by Chinbôks and Yindus (see *Plate C*) are of three kinds:—firstly, a plain bamboo pipe with a bamboo stem a foot long; secondly, a pipe with a baked bamboo bowl and bamboo stem; thirdly, a pipe on the principle of the hubble-bubble. This last consists of a gourd, in which some water is kept, and from which a bamboo tube fitted with a neat earthen bowl, projects about an inch from the upper side. The smoke is drawn into the mouth through the end of the gourd, where it tapers off at its stem. The tobacco the people smoke is grown by themselves, and is very rank and offensive in smell. They are always smoking. The women smoke as well as the men.

The Chinbôns for the most part carry nothing but spears. They have a few guns and a few

⁸ [I make out from this that the dagger-basket, see *Plate C*, in the time of peace, is the food basket in time of war.—Ed.]



bows and arrows. They have a square leather shield, which, when on the war-path, they carry in the left hand, and with which they ward off spear thrusts and arrows. They have no accoutrements.

Exports and Imports.—The principal exports of these Chin tribes are—

Plantains.	<i>Sât</i> (a small millet).
Tobacco.	Ginger.
Indian-corn leaves (for cheroots.)	Pork.
Chillies.	Honey.
Turmeric.	Beeswax.
	Cane mats.

The principal imports are—

Salt.	Marbles.
Blankets.	Trinkets.
Sheets.	Spears.
<i>Gaungbaungs</i> . ⁶	<i>Damauks</i> . ⁷
Cotton (raw).	<i>Pauktas</i> . ⁸
Cotton (thread).	Iron.
Needles.	Sickles.
Dyes.	Cattle.
Brass-wire.	Goats.
Gongs.	Dogs.
Cymbals.	Fowls.
Small bells.	<i>Ngapt</i> . ⁹
Beads.	<i>Dámbyàs</i> . ¹⁰

Agriculture.—The system of cultivation carried on by the different sections or tribes on the South Yò frontier is much the same everywhere, and the crops produced vary but slightly. It is all *taungya*¹¹ cultivation. No cattle are used in ploughing. All the work is done by hand, a great deal being performed by women. The only exception to this system of agriculture is that a few villages of Chinbóns in the southern end of the Môn valley have a few buffaloes, with which they plough a few paddy-fields; but this industry does not prosper, as their more powerful neighbours carry off their cattle to sacrifice to the *nàts*.

The first operation in the *taungya* system is to clear the jungle off the slopes to be brought under cultivation. This work is performed by the men in the month of October with *damauks*, which they buy from the Burmans. The jungle, thus cut, lies until quite dry, till it is burnt in the month of April. The ground is then cleared and, without further preparation, the grain is planted as follows:—In the right hand a sharpened or rather pointed, stick is held, with which holes are drilled into the ground. Into these holes the grain is dropped with the left hand. After this

weeds have constantly to be kept down, and the work of weeding falls to the lot of the women, who also loosen the ground round the young shoots with *Dámbyàs*, which are bought from Burmans, as soon as the crop is a few inches high.

The first crop of *sât* is reaped in August; other crops are reaped in November and December.

The same ground is cultivated for two years only, as in the third year the grass grows so strongly that cultivation is impossible. It is therefore left until jungle has again grown on it, when,—usually after five years,—it can again be cleared and cultivated.

Threshing is performed as under:—The grain in the ear is collected in heaps near the grain-huts in the fields, and trodden out by foot on large cane mats, from which it is transferred into enormous cane baskets standing over four feet high. Some grains, such as Indian-corn, are stored loose in the ear in the grain-huts.

The principal crops are—

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| (1) <i>Taungya</i> paddy. | (12) Sugarcane. |
| (2) <i>Sât</i> (a small millet). | (13) Plantains. |
| (3) <i>Chariksan</i> (a large-grained millet). | (14) Pineapples. |
| (4) Millet. | (15) Chillies. |
| (5) Indian-corn. | (16) Brinjals. (<i>Au-bergine</i>). |
| (6) Yams. | (17) Tomatoes. |
| (7) Sweet potatoes. | (18) Pumpkins. |
| (8) Ginger. | (19) Gourds. |
| (9) Beans (of various kinds, some an inch in length). | (20) Tobacco. |
| (10) Peas (of kinds). | (21) Cotton. |
| (11) <i>Dál</i> . | (22) Turmeric. |
| | (23) Onions. |
| | (24) Garlic. |

Much damage is done to the crops by bears, pigs, and deer, and also by birds. The Yindus build huts high up in trees, in which they sit at night to frighten off the bears. Various scare-crows are also used to frighten off birds.

Grains which require to be husked are treated as follows:—A log is planted in the ground protruding about three feet. The top is scooped out so as to form a deep cup, into which the grain is dropped and pounded with a club. The Chinbóns, who live in houses near the ground, have this log protruding through the floor of their houses and therefore perform this work inside the house. This work falls on the women, and very hard work it is. While cultivating, the

⁶ Burmese turbans.

⁷ *dás* or knives used for household purpose.

⁸ Spades.

⁹ Preparation of putrid fish used as a condiment.

¹⁰ Trowels.

¹¹ Temporary forest clearing.

villages are deserted, the people living in temporary huts in their fields.¹⁴

Local Products and Industries.—The only local products, besides agricultural, are—

(1) Pottery, which is confined to a few villages only, Myaing on the Môn and Myin on the Maung being the foremost in this industry :

(2) The manufacture of daggers, arrow-heads, and spear-heads confined to certain villages :

(3) The production of lac, which is abstracted from trees in most villages and used in the manufacture of accoutrements, &c :

(4) The production of salt. The largest salt-springs are on the Mò at a place called Sànni, six *doins*¹⁵ from Tlin, where 200 viss of salt can be produced daily, and there are other springs further up the stream. These are, however, the only springs of importance. A small quantity of salt is procured at a place on the Chèchaung, three *doins* from Yáyin, a Burman village. The salt is produced by boiling down the water :

(5) Spinning, which is done by the women ; all the clothes of a purely national character being made by them. The people import most of their cotton, but grow a little :

(6) The manufacture of mats, brooms, baskets, and such like articles ; besides bows, arrows, and accoutrements :

(7) Hunting, as a means of filling the pot, though the people collect heads (of animals) and trophies with a thoroughly sportsmanlike interest. They track their game and shoot it with arrows, bringing down tiger, bear, *sambhar*, pig, &c. They frequently come to grief and get badly mauled, and many are killed by tigers and bears :

(8) Fishing, which is carefully and systematically carried out in various ways ;—(a) by shooting the fish with arrows, at which the people are wonderfully skilful ; (b) by catching the fish in basket traps, in the manner of the Burmans on this frontier ; (c) by catching the fish with nets made locally ; (d) by diverting a stream and isolating stretches of it with dams, and then poisoning the fish with the bark of a certain tree, which is stripped off, pounded, and thrown into the water prepared as above.

Forests.—The lower slopes on the Burmese side of the Chin Hills contain some fine teak, especially near the mouths of the Yò, Maung, and Chè streams. Bamboos are plentiful throughout the hills. On the higher slopes are fine fir forests, oaks of various kinds, rhododendrons, and so on.

Dwarf bamboos, making excellent fodder, were constantly met with, even at heights over 7,000 feet above sea-level. There is some cutch on the lower slopes on the Burmese side.

Flora and Fauna.—On the lower slopes the usual flowers and vegetation seen in Burma are met with. Higher up flowers and plants of a colder climate are seen, including orchids, ferns, roses, lawn daisies, marguerites, thistles, mosses ; also a shrub with a flower like hawthorn.

The wild animals are :—

Tigers.	Hare.
Bears.	Porcupine.
Leopards.	Otter.
Pigs.	Wild cats.
Deer of many kinds.	Jungle fowl.
Wild cattle (<i>sain</i> and <i>pyaung</i>).	Pheasants (silver).
Monkeys.	Partridge.
Apes (Hoolocks).	Many kinds of small birds.

The domestic animals are :—

<i>Maipan</i> .	Dogs.
Figs.	Fowl.

Goats.

All are used for food and sacrifices, and for marriage gifts.

Houses.—The houses resemble those of Burmans, except that they are stronger and better built ; the thatch on the roofs being often a foot thick, well put on, and firmly tied down. The floors are frequently of teak or fir planks hewn out of a single tree. The floors are raised three to six feet from the ground. Pigs, goats, dogs, and fowls live underneath and all round, and the houses, though otherwise clean, are full of fleas. The fireplaces are similar to those in Burman houses.

During the cultivating season the villages are abandoned and temporary huts are built in the fields, as well as sheds for storing grain. To prevent rats from getting into the latter they are raised six feet or more off the ground, and branches of fir, stalk-ends uppermost, are tied to the posts, because rats cannot run up them. Flat circular boards are also used for the purpose of preventing rats from running up a post, the post passing through a hole in the centre.

Engineering Works.—There are no engineering works on a large scale.

Fishing dams are constructed to isolate reaches of streams in order to catch or poison the fish, or to divert the stream.

¹⁴ [A Shàn custom also. — Ed.]

¹⁵ *dain* = *lòs* = about 2 miles.

Bridges across streams are also made on the cantilever principle. These are wonderful constructions of bamboo and very clever. Other simple bridges are also made, including swing-bridges.

Aqueducts for bringing water into the villages are also ingeniously designed. They are made of bamboos, split so as to form a gutter, along which the water runs. The bamboo gutters are supported, according to the level required, on tripods. A spot higher than the village is chosen as the source of water-supply often nearly half-a-mile distant. The Chinbôns, who have paddy-fields, irrigate them in the same way as the Burmans.

The roads are mere tracks and are not in any way constructed.

Household Furniture, Dishes, &c.—The only articles of furniture to be found in a Chin house are the fireplace and cooking pots, similar to those used by Burmans. Water is kept in *ghards*, bamboos, or gourds. They eat with their fingers off bits of matting, which take the place of plates.

Each house has a rough loom, spindle, &c., for spinning. In Chinbôn houses the grain-pounders protrude through the floor.

In all houses are found a few baskets containing grain for present use and some liquor jars.

Trophies and Decorations.—In the verandah of each Chinbôk or Yindu house are the heads of every animal shot, captured, or killed by the houseowner. The Chinbôks also carve boards, or rather posts, about eight feet high, which they erect outside their houses. These indicate the number of head of game which the owner has killed. No man is thought much of unless he has a good show of heads and posts. The heads include tiger, bear, *sambhar*, *sain*, and various kinds of deer, monkeys, and domestic animals. Chinbôns shoot but little.

Raids.—The objects of raids are to obtain possession of slaves, cattle, money, and property of all kinds; and are never undertaken with the sole object of (human) head-hunting. They are not only directed against British-Burman subjects, but also against those dwelling across the Yômâs, and even against another Chin tribe.

The captives taken in raids into Burma are usually held to ransom. The actual process of raiding is accompanied with much bloodshed and cruelty, but the prisoners are well treated if once they reach the village of their captors. Women are not outraged.

As captives, women, children, and *pôngyis*, (priests), are preferred: the two former as there is less chance of their effecting their escape than men; the latter because they can obtain such enormous ransoms for their release. Captives are at first placed in stocks, but are afterwards allowed out with a log attached to their legs, and a string to carry it by. To secure the leg to the log a hole is cut through the centre of the log. Through this hole the foot and ankle are inserted, and also a wooden pin so as to make the hole too small to allow of the foot being withdrawn. A string is attached to either end of the log, which the prisoner holds in his hand when walking, thus taking the weight off the ankle. If it is thought that prisoner is not likely to attempt to escape, the log is removed. Prisoners are obliged to work in the fields, fetch water, husk grain, &c.

Captives, if not quickly redeemed by their own people, are sold from village to village, which renders it very difficult to trace and recover them. They fetch from Rs. 80 to Rs. 300, sometimes paid in cash, but generally in cattle.

Cattle are much prized, and are driven off from the plains, whenever opportunity offers.

Iron is greatly valued for spear and arrow heads, &c. When raiding in Burma the Chins frequently tear off the *t's* (summit ornaments) from pagodas for the sake of the iron they contain.

Certain villages are notorious raiders, cultivating but little and living by raiding. They are a terror to the weaker and more industrious Chin villagers, whom they greatly oppress, and who are consequently frequently driven to raid on Burman villages to recoup themselves for the heavy losses they sustain at the hands of their more powerful neighbours. This system of terrorism keeps the Chins the savages we find them. They have no incentive to become prosperous, as they are liable to lose their all, including wives and children, at any moment. They can ransom their relations, if well enough off, but the price demanded is beyond the means of most Chins.

Raids are organized as follows. The leading man or chief, who wishes to get up a raid, gets men together from his own and other villages. He gives a feast and arranges for rations on the road. All these expenses he defrays, but gets the lion's share of the captives and loot. Quarrels frequently occur, attended with bloodshed, over division of the spoil. The *nâts* are always consulted and, if the omens are unfavourable, the raid is postponed and often abandoned altogether.

Moonlight nights are usually chosen for raids and a "surprise" is always attempted. While retreating they generally spike the path behind them with bamboos and, if pressed, they often kill their captives. On this account the Burmans frequently hesitate to follow them up.

Warfare.—The Chin system of warfare is almost identical with the system of raiding. When attacking an enemy's village, or a force encamped, they always attempt a surprise, and unless they consider themselves very strong, they content themselves with harassing a column on the line of march by creeping up and discharging arrows, generally at the rear-guard. They will also roll down boulders and rocks, if opportunity offers, upon an advancing force, and will attempt to burn the jungle through which a column is passing. They only attempt a front attack when confident of success, and then advance yelling and shouting. On the defensive they roll down rocks, spike roads, and discharge arrows from behind cover. They do not dig pits

Chinbôk villages are not fenced in any way. Yindu villages have a thorn or bamboo fence which presents no serious obstacle.

Chinbôns stockade with what is known as "Chin stockade-work" and form most formidable abattis by felling the bamboo jungle in which their villages are generally built, sharpening the ends of the bamboos, and planting innumerable spikes. There is only one gate to a Chinbôn village and it is a very narrow one, approached by a path which admits of men advancing in single file only. A few of the villages are not stockaded, but built on high poles.

Chin villages are generally built in dense jungle hollows on the sides of the hills. They can always be taken in rear and commanded, and should never be attacked from below. Approaches will always be found to be spiked, and rocks will be rolled on the advancing column.

Smoking and Washing.—Men, women, and even small children are never without their pipes and tobacco, and smoke constantly. A description has already been given of the different kinds of pipes they smoke. The tobacco used is grown by themselves and sun-dried. It is very rank.

Chins, especially the Northern Chinbôks, have the greatest dislike to water. They never wash their bodies, and very seldom touch their faces and hands, with water. Their clothes are never washed.

Food and Drink.—The food of the Chins consists of the grain and vegetables they grow, the

domestic animals they keep, and the game and fish they shoot and catch. Grain and vegetables are boiled, except *chaiksan*, which is generally roasted, as is also the flesh of animals. They cook like the Burmans, but do not use oil.

Except the beer they brew, water is their only beverage. The women draw water in *gharás*, gourds or bamboos.

Drunkenness.—The most remarkable custom of these people is their habit of getting drunk on every possible occasion. Every and any incident is an excuse to bring out the beer jars (see *Plate Q*)—the arrival of a stranger or visitor, the birth of a child, a marriage, a death, a case of sickness, an offering to or consultation of *nâts*,—are all sufficient excuses for every one present, men, women, and even tiny children, to get drunk. They frequently keep up these debauches for days. The liquor is made of grain, boiled and fermented, and varies much in quality, depending on the grain used (rice is the best) and the length of time the liquor has been kept. Good Chin beer is a very palatable drink, much resembling cider in taste, but more like perry in appearance. The liquor is stored in jars, standing over two feet in height and filled half full with the fermenting grain. As the liquor is drawn off the jar is filled up with water.

The liquor is drunk as follows:—A hollow bamboo, the thickness of a little finger, is thrust into the jar, and pressed well down into the grain. The company sit round this and take sips in turn.

A more civilized way of drawing off the liquor is sometimes followed. A hole is made in the side of the bamboo above mentioned, the hollow top being stopped up; into this hole another bamboo is inserted sloping downwards over the side of the jar (see *Plate Q*). The host gives a suck to start the liquor running: gourds are then filled and handed round.

Tattooing.—All women have their faces tattooed (see *Plate A*). The process is commenced when they are small children and gradually completed, the operations extending over several years.

The Chinbôks cover the face with nicks, lines, and dots in a uniform design, the women's breasts being also surrounded with a circle of dots. The Yindus tattoo in lines across the face, showing glimpses of the skin. The Chinbôns tattoo jet black and are the most repulsive in appearance, though often fair-skinned. The beauty of a woman is judged by the style in which the tattooing has been done. Men are not tattooed at all.

Proper Names.—Most Chin villages have Burmese names. Many have two names, one a Chin and the other a Burman name, which causes great confusion. Among themselves they usually talk of a village as So-and-so's village, naming the *Pjái* (headman). Thus, a village of which the headman's name was Nga Tin would be called Nga Tinywâ (Nga Tin's¹⁴ Village). The names of men resemble Burman names, but they invariably prefix *Nga* instead of *Maung*.

The women's names are curious; they prefix *Mi* and *Ba*.

The following are examples of names:—

Men.	Women.
Nga Kwai.	Mi Ba Do.
Nga Shain.	Mi Ba Laung.
Nga Cha.	Mi Ba Sôk.
Nga Tin.	

Sanitation.—The villages are kept cleaner than Burman villages, otherwise their sanitary arrangements are similar.

Carrying Loads.—Everything is carried slung across the forehead by a strap, usually in cane baskets about the size of a Burmese pack-bullock's basket. Sometimes there is a second strap, which passes across the chest. Even water is carried in this manner, gourds being filled and placed in the basket, or, if *gharás* are used, the *gharâ* is placed in the basket. A Chin makes nothing of a sixty-pound bag of *âpâ* (flour) going over the worst possible tracks.

Music and Dancing.—Musical instruments consist of gongs, cymbals, drums, and bells. There is also a curious kind of banjo made out of one piece of bamboo a little thicker than a man's wrist and about eighteen inches long. The bamboo used is hollow and cut off at both ends just beyond the joint. Narrow strips of the bamboo are then slit and raised on small pegs without severing the ends; four or five strings are thus formed, which are manipulated with the fingers. The music produced is rather pleasant.

There is no tune, but time is kept on the drums. Dancing, in which both men and women take part, is generally commenced when they are all primed with liquor.

The men brandish spears and *âs* and shout, or rather yell. By firelight the sight is a curious and pretty one.

Oaths.—Oaths are of several kinds and are supposed to be binding. The one most feared is drinking water that has been poured over the skull of a tiger.

Another oath is partly Burmese, [*Chinese—Ed*] in origin. The terms of the oath are written on paper and burnt, while the swearing parties place the butts of their arms, spears, *âs*, guns, bows, arrows, &c., in a basin of water. The ashes of the paper are then mixed with the water and drunk by the parties concerned.

Another oath is drinking blood.¹⁵ In all oaths much liquor is drunk. It is doubtful whether oaths are of any value.

Births, Marriages, Deaths.—All these are great occasions and necessitate sacrifices to the *nâts*, feasting, and much drinking, accompanied by music and dancing.

When a child is born the *nâts* are consulted to ascertain if it will live or die.

Marriage among the Chinbôks is a love affair, and takes place at about twenty years of age. The young man proposes and, if accepted, the consent of the girl's parents is asked. They, if they approve of the suitor, consult the *nâts* to see if the marriage will be a lucky one.

If the omens are favourable, one *maipân* at least must be given to the bride's parents. If the bridegroom has not got the value of a *maipân*, he promises to pay by instalments and takes possession of the bride at once. If the girl has many necklaces, several *maipân* must be given. A big drink and feast follows, and sacrifices to the *nâts*.

If, however, the omens prove unfavourable and the young couple are nevertheless anxious to be married, the *nâts* are periodically consulted until they are favourable. This always must happen in time, if the *nâts* are only consulted frequently enough.

The Yindu marriage customs are different. Among them the love is one-sided. The would-be bridegroom selects the lady of his fancy and goes to her father's house with ten pairs of earrings, or their value, and demands the girl, giving the father the earrings. The girl is immediately handed over to him, whether willing or not, and whether the parents approve of the match or not. The usual drinks and ceremonies follow.

¹⁴ [This confusion is universal in the East, e.g., an average Pathân village has six names; an average Sikkim village has five; a Kásmír village has four, and may have nine; in the Amherst District a village or place will have ordinarily a Burmese, Talaing, Shân and Taungôú name, to which may be superadded a Páli name

also. See my papers on the Tal-Chotiali Route, *J. R. G. S.*, Vol. L., and *J. A. S. B.*, Part II. for 1882, and my Edition of Sir R. Temple's *Journals kept in Hyderabad, Kashmir, Sikkim, and Nepal*, 1887, preface, pp. xviii—xxi—Ed.]

¹⁵ [See *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 423ff. Ed.]

There are no divorces. If a man's wife is carried off by another man, as frequently happens, the husband kills his rival, if he can, and takes back his wife.

There is no restriction as to the number of wives allotted to one man. If a man dies, his brother must take his wife and children. In this way one man may accumulate many families.

On a death occurring all the friends assemble and drink. A *maiphan*, or other suitable sacrifice, is slain. The number of days the body is kept, and consequently the duration of the festivities, depends on the age and importance of the deceased. The body is eventually carried far into the jungle to a burial-ground on the ridge of a hill, where it is burnt. The charred bones are collected and, together with the clothes of the deceased, are placed in an earthen pot.

The pot is, amongst the Chinbôks and Yindus, then placed on the ground under a slab of stone supported on four upright stones. In the Chinbôk and Yindu country there are large cemeteries of these stones, some of which are of enormous size and must have taken great labour to bring from the places where they abound to the burial-ground.

The Chinbôns do not use stones, but erect miniature houses, which are models of the style of architecture of the particular village to which the deceased belonged, being either raised on poles or not, as the case may be. In these houses, which form miniature villages, the pots are placed. Those Chinbôns who have emigrated to and died in Burma, are cremated where they die, but their bones are carefully collected and sent in a pot to be placed in the cemetery of the village, to which they or their forefathers originally belonged.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

SOCIAL CUSTOMS IN SOUTHERN INDIA.

When a young Brâhman visits or takes leave of an elderly man of his caste and sect, either in consequence of age or learning, the custom is for the younger to prostrate himself before the elder and to receive his blessing.

In poor Brâhman houses, a widow is the chief cook and she performs almost all the menial work in the house. She gets up early in the morning and shuns the presence of everybody else in the house, as it is superstitiously believed that if anybody sees a widow's face on rising from his bed he will have bad luck during the day. Even her own children, if she has any, are averse to seeing her face in the morning, and she herself, knowing the evil that would arise, will not approach them. When a person starts on a journey or on any special errand, if a widow comes before him, it is an evil omen. On entering upon her widowhood, a woman takes off the hair on her head, and a portion of her waist cloth is put round her head. She usually turns very religious, takes only one meal a day, and sets aside all worldly pleasures. She is also prohibited from singing on marriage occasions.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

SUPERSTITIONS AS TO SNAKES IN MADRAS.

Take half a measure full of native onions and make about three or four dozen small bags, put half a dozen onions into each and then tie up the bags at some small distance from each other to the rafters under the tiles, or tie up to the rafters

about half a dozen peacock feathers. As snakes have a very acute sense of smell, and as the smell of these two things is very repugnant to them, they will always keep away. The above is said to be very effective in the case of cobras.

Snake charmers in Southern India have often been seen to catch cobras with their right hand, while keeping a small stick in their left hand. This stick is always besmeared with onion juice.

A pinch of tobacco snuff thrown over the head of a cobra acts as chloroform and the cobra is benumbed as it were.

It is considered a great sin to kill a cobra. When a cobra is killed the people generally burn it as they do human bodies. A man who has killed a cobra considers himself as polluted for three days or at least for ninety hours, and in the second day milk is poured on the remains of the cobra. On the third day he is free from pollution.

SUPERSTITIONS ABOUT ANIMALS IN SOUTHERN INDIA.

The Indian screech owl or death-bird is held in great fear by the Hindus of Southern India. If this bird happens to sit on the roof of a house and screech thrice, it is said that the chief member of the house will die within one week from that date.

If bees build a nest in any part of a house, it is said that the chief member of the house will die within one month from that date.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

BHARAUT INSCRIPTIONS.

BY E. HULTZSCH, Ph.D.; BANGALORE.

THE remains of the Buddhist Stûpa of Bharaut¹ were discovered in 1873 by General Sir A. Cunningham, who very judiciously saved most of them from destruction by removal to the Indian Museum, Calcutta. His richly illustrated monograph *The Stûpa of Bharhut* (London, 1879) contains eye-copies and tentative transcripts and translations of the Bharaut inscriptions, both of those which are now at Calcutta, and of those which remain *in situ*. Part of the Calcutta inscriptions have been minutely treated by Dr. Hoernle.² With the kind permission of Dr. Anderson, Superintendent of the Indian Museum, I prepared mechanical copies of all those at Calcutta in 1885 and published them with German translations.³ The importance which the Bharaut inscriptions undoubtedly possess on account of their antiquity, now induces me to republish my German paper, with some additions and corrections, in English, and thus to make it more generally accessible.

The age of the Bharaut inscriptions is approximately fixed by the inscription No. 1, which records that the East gateway of the Stûpa was built "during the reign of the Suṅgas," i. e., in the second or first century B. C., by Vātsīputra Dhanabhūti. From the manner in which he refers to the 'Suṅgas, it may be concluded that this king was one of their tributaries. One of those inscriptions which have not been removed to Calcutta⁴ contains the name "of prince Vādhapāla (i. e., Vyādhapāla?) the son of king Dhanabhūti." At the beginning of another fragment, one is tempted to conjecture *tisa* instead of *kasa*, the reading of General Cunningham's eye-copy,⁵ and to translate: — "The gift of Nāgarakṣitā (i. e., Nāgarakṣitā) the wife of king [Dhanabhū]ti." A gift by some later Dhanabhūti is recorded in a Mathurā inscription, which has been removed to Alīgādh.⁶

With the exception of No. 1, the Bharaut inscriptions do not contain any historical information. They are simply labels which record the names of the donors of the pillars (*stambha*) or rails (*sūchi*) on which they are engraved, or explain the subjects which some of the reliefs represent. The following towns from which some of the donors hailed, are incidentally mentioned: — Bhōgavardhana, Bhōjakata, Bi[m]bik[ā]na[n]dikata, Kākandī, Karahakata, Kubjatinduka (P), Mayūragiri, N[an]d[i]nagara, Pāṭaliputra, Purikā, Śiṛṣhapadra, Sthavirākūta and Vaidīśa. The epithets Chikulaniya or Chekulana, Chudathlikā and Dabhinikā appear to be likewise derived from names of localities, the Sanskrit originals of which are, however, doubtful. In General Cunningham's eye-copies of those inscriptions which were not removed to Calcutta, occur: — Karahakata (Plate lv. No. 96), Moragiri (No. 95), Nāsika (No. 87) and Vedisa (No. 100, and Plate lvi. No. 1); also Bhojakataka, 'a resident of Bhōjakata' (Plate lvi. No. 46), Kosabeyeka, 'a female resident of Kauśāmbī' (Plate liv. No. 53), and Selapuraka, 'a resident of 'Sailapura' (Plate lv. No. 91). Among these geographical names, Kauśāmbī, Nāsika, Pāṭaliputra and Vaidīśa are the modern Kōsam, Nāsik, Paṭna and Bēsnagar.

Of the Buddhist scenes which are represented in the sculptures and referred to in the inscriptions, part are still obscure, and part have been successfully identified by General Cunningham. The most interesting among these representations are the *Jātakas*, or supposed previous births of the founder of the Buddhist creed. As will be seen from the subjoined table, a considerable number of them have been traced by the Rev. Subhūti, Professor Rhys Davids, and myself, in the Pāli collection of *Jātakas*, for the publication of which we are indebted to the scholarship of Professor Fausboll.

¹ As stated by Dr. Fleet, *ante*, Vol. XIV. p. 138, note 1, this appears to be the correct spelling of the name. General Cunningham uses the form *Bharhut*.

² *ante*, Vol. X. pp. 118 ff. and 255 ff. Vol. XI. pp. 25 ff.

³ *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morg. Ges.* Vol. XL. pp. 53 ff.

⁴ *Stûpa of Bharhut*, Plate lvi. No. 54.

⁵ *Ibid.* No. 67.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Plate liii. No. 4, and *Arch. Survey of India*, Vol. III. Plate xvi. No. 21.

Below, No. 3. Maghādeviya jataka.	Fausboll's No. 9. Makhādēva-jātaka.
" " 6. Sujato gahuto jataka.	" " 352. Sujāta-jātaka.
" " 7. { Bidāla-jata[k]a, (alias) Kukuṭa-jataka. }	" " 383. Kukkuṭa-jātaka.
" " 10. Isi-migo jataka.
" " 12. Kinara-jātakam.	" Vol. IV. pp. 252 to 254.
" " 14. Uda-jataka.	" No. 400. Dabbhapuppha-jātaka.
" " 15. Sechha-jataka.	" " 174. Dūbhiyamakkaṭa-jātaka.
" " 17. Bhisaharaniya jataka[m].	" " 488. Bhisā-jātaka.
" " 32. Nāga-jātaka.	" " 267. Kakkāṭa-jātaka.
" " 37. Miga-jātakam.	" " 482. Ruru-jātaka(?).
" " 72. Yavamajhakiyaṃ jātakam.
" " 85. Chhadamtiya jātakam.	" " 514. Chhaddanta-jātaka.
" " 86. Vitura-Punakiya jatakam.
" " 109. Laṭuvā-jātaka.	" " 357. Laṭukika-jātaka.
" " 155. M[u]ga[pa]k[i]y[a] j[ā]ta[ka].
" " 156. Isis[iṃgiya jā]ta[ka].	" " 523. Alambusa-jātaka.
" " 157. Yaṃ bram[h]ano avayesi jatakam.	" " 62. Aṇḍabhūta-jātaka.
" " 158. Haṃsa-jātaka.	" " 32. Nachcha-jātaka.
Cunningham's Plate xxvii. No. 9.	" " 206. Kuruṅgamiga-jātaka.
" " " " 13.	" " 181. Asadisa-jātaka.
" " " " 14.	" " 461. Dasaratha-jātaka.
" " xxxiii. " 4.	" " 407. Mahākapi-jātaka.
" " xliii. " 8.	" " 12. Nigrōdhamiga-jātaka.
" " xlv. " 5.	" Nos. 46 and 268. Ārāmadūsaka-jātaka.

It appears from the above table that the titles of the single *Jātakas* in the Bharaut inscriptions generally differ more or less from those which are adopted in the standard redaction of the *Jātaka* book. A very curious proof for the antiquity of the verses which are handed down to us in the *Jātaka* book, is afforded by the inscription No. 157, which quotes the first *pāda* of one of these verses.⁷ As discovered by the late Professor Childers (*Pāli Dictionary*, p. ix. note 3), an almost literal quotation from the **Life of Buddha**, which is prefixed to the *Jātaka* book (Vol. I. p. 92), occurs in the inscription No. 38. The announcement of the future conception of Buddha (No. 80), his descent to earth (No. 98), and the festival in honour of his hair-lock (No. 78), are referred to in the same introduction to the *Jātaka*, Vol. I. pp. 48, 50, and 65. 'The assembly (of ascetics) with matted hair' (*jaṭila*, No. 13) is probably intended for Uruvāla-Kassapa and his followers (Vol. I. p. 82 f.). The Indraśāla cave (No. 99) corresponds to the Indraśāla cave of the Northern Buddhists, who also mention the visits of king Prasēnajit of Kōsala and of the serpent king Airāvata to Buddha (Nos. 58 and 60). The visit of Ajātasatru (No. 77) is described in the records of both Northern and Southern Buddhists.

In the inscriptions, **Buddha** is generally designated *Bhagavat*, 'the Blessed one,' and once (No. 46) *Sākyamuni*. Of the former **Buddhas** the following are named: — *Vipaśyin*, *Viśvabhū*, *Kakutsamdhā*, *Kōṇāgamana*, *Kāśyapa*. The inscriptions also mention 'Sudharmā, the hall of the gods,' 'Vaijayanta, the palace (of Indra),' the two classes of deities called *Kāmāvachara* and *Suddhāvāsa*, and give the names of four celestial nymphs (*apsaras*), three goddesses (*dēvatā*), one angel (*dēvaputra*), one *vidyādharā*, six male and two female *yakshas*,

⁷ The chief story of the fifth book of the *Pañchatantra* is closely related to the *Chatudvārājātaka* (Fausboll's No. 439). At the beginning of the *Pañchatantra* story occurs the following verse (No. 22 of the Bombay edition): —

अतिलोभो न कर्तव्यो लोभं नैव परित्यजेत् । अतिलोभाभिभूतस्य चक्रं भ्रमति मस्तके ॥

The fourth *pāda* of this verse is identical with that of the 5th verse of the *Chatudvārājātaka*, the second half of which reads: — *icchhāṇātassa pōsassa chakkam bhramati matihakkē*.

and two serpent kings (*nāgarāja*). Buddhistical terms are:—*chaitya*, *bōdhi* or *bōdha*, *bōdhichakra* and *dharmachakra*. The mention of donors who were versed in the *Piṭakas*, (No. 134), in the *Sūtrānta* (No. 95) and in the five *Nikāyas* (No. 144) proves that the Buddhist canon and its subdivisions were known and studied in the second or first century B. C. Among the donors are one householder (*grihapati*), one trooper (*aśvavārika*), one sculptor (*rūpakāraka*), four preachers (*bhāṇaka*) and twelve nuns (*bhikkhuni*). Others are characterised as members of the priesthood by the epithet 'reverend' (*ārya* or *bhaddanta*).

TEXTS AND TRANSLATIONS.

No. 1 (Cunningham's Plate liii. No. 1).⁸

- 1 Suganaṃ raje rañño Gāgi-putasa Visadevasa
- 2 pautena Goti-putasa Āgarajusa putena
- 3 Vāchhi-putena Dhanabhūtiṇa kāritaṃ toraṇaṃ⁹
- 4 silā-kammaṃto cha upamaṇa.¹⁰

During the reign of the Śuṅgas, — Vatsi-putra Dhanabhūti, the son of Gaupṭi-putra Aṅgaradyut¹¹ (and) grandson of king Gārgi-putra Visvadēva, caused (*this*) gateway to be made, and the stone-work¹² arose.

No. 2 (liii. 1 b).

Aya-Nāgadevasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the reverend Nāgadēva.

No. 3 (liii. 2 b; Hoernle's No. 5).

Maghādeviya jataka.

The *jātaka* (*which treats*) of Makhādēva.

No. 4 (liii. 3 b; Hoernle's No. 6).

Dighatapasi sise anusāsati.

Dīrghatapasvin instructs (*his*) pupils.

No. 5 (liii. 4 b; Hoernle's No. 7).

Abode chātiyaṃ.¹³

The *chaitya* on (*Mount*) Arbuda.

No. 6 (liii. 5).

Sujato gahuto jataka.

The *jā taka* (*entitled*) "Sujāta caught."¹⁴

No. 7 (liii. 6).

Biḍala-jatara¹⁵ kukuṭa-jataka.

The cat *jātaka*, (*also called*) the cock *jātaka*.

No. 8 (liii. 7).

Daḍanikamo chakama.

The enclosure (*called*) Daḍanishkrama (?).

⁸ The text of Nos. 1 to 154 is transcribed from impressions which I prepared at Calcutta in 1885. A facsimile of No. 1 is found *ante*, Vol. XIV. p. 139, and facsimiles of Nos. 2 to 15, 17 to 51, 55 to 151, and 153 in the *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morg. Ges.* Vol. XL. pp. 60 and 70.

⁹ Read *toranaṃ* (𑀭 instead of 𑀭).

¹⁰ Read *upamaṇo* (𑀭 instead of 𑀭).

¹¹ As suggested by Dr. Bühler, this name has to be explained by *Āṅgāra[ka] iva dyōtata ity Āṅgaradyut*, 'shining like (the planet) Mars.' The custom, in accordance with which each of the three kings bears a secondary name derived from the *gōtra* of his mother, has descended through the Andhras to the Kadambas and Chalukyas; see Dr. Fleet's *Kanarese Dynasties*, p. 5, note 2.

¹² See Childers' *Pāli Dictionary*, s. v. *kammanto*.

¹³ Possibly a clerical mistake for *chetiyaṃ*.

¹⁴ *Gahuto* (Sanskrit *grīhṭāh*) appears to mean either 'surprised' or 'understood' (by his father); see the *Sujāta-jātaka*, Fausboll's No. 352.

¹⁵ This is a clerical mistake for *jataka* (i. e. *jātakaṃ*).

No. 9 (liii. 8).

Asaḍā vadhu susāne sigāla¹⁶ ñati.¹⁷

The woman **Ashāḍhā**, who has observed the jackals on the cemetery.

No. 10 (liii. 9).

Isi-migo jataka.

The *jātaka* (entitled) "the antelope of the saint."

No. 11 (liii. 10; Hoernle's No. 1).

Miga-samadaka[m] chetaya.¹⁸

The *chaitya* which gladdens the antelopes.

No. 12 (liii. 12).

Kinara-jātakam.

The *Kinnara jātaka*.

No. 13 (liii. 13).

Jaṭila-sabbhā.

The assembly (of ascetics) with matted hair.

No. 14 (liii. 14).

Uda-jataka.

The *jātaka* (which treats) of the (two) otters.

No. 15 (liii. 15; Hoernle's No. 4).

Sechha-jataka.

The *śaiksha*¹⁹ *jātaka*.

No. 16 (liii. 16).

1 Karahakaṭa-nigamasa

2 dāna.

The gift of the city of **Karahakaṭa**.²⁰

No. 17 (liii. 17).

Bhisaharaniya jataka[m].

The *jātaka* (which treats) of the stealing of the lotus-fibres.

No. 18 (liii. 18; Hoernle's No. 8).

Veḍuko katha dohati Naḍode pavate.

Vēṇuka²¹ milks²² *katha*²³ on Mount **Naḍōda**.

No. 19 (liii. 19; Hoernle's No. 9).

Jabū Naḍode pavate.

The *jambū* (tree) on Mount **Naḍōda**.

No. 20 (liii. 20; Hoernle's No. 2).

U Janako rāja Sivala devi.

. King **Janaka**. Queen **Sivalā**.²⁴

¹⁶ Read *sigāle* (acc. plur.)?

¹⁷ *ñati* probably represents the Sanskrit *jñātrī*, as *ketā* in No. 38 stands for *krētā*.

¹⁸ It remains doubtful whether the vowel *a* in the second syllable of this word is due to a clerical omission of the sign for *i*, or if it is the expression of an indistinct pronunciation of the vowel *i*. Compare *Sabbhādā* for *Subhadrā* in *Ajātasata* for *Ajātasatru* in Nos. 52 and 77.

¹⁹ See Childers' *Pāli Dictionary*, s.v. *sekho*.

²⁰ *Karahākaḍḍaka*, 'a resident of *Karahākada*,' occurs in the *Kudā* inscription No. 18, *Arch. Survey of W. India*, Vol. IV. p. 87. *Karahakata* or *Karahākada* is probably identical with *Karahātaka*, which is referred to in a *Rāshtra-kūṭa* inscription of Śaka 675 (*ante*, Vol. XI. p. 110), and with the modern *Karhād* in the *Sattārā* district.

²¹ According to No. 68, this person was a gardener. *Vēṇuka*, 'little reed,' occurs in the *Jātaka* No. 43 as the name of a snake.

²² See the corresponding relief, *Stūpa of Bharhut*, Plate xlviii. No. 9.

²³ This word may be meant for *kaṣṭha* (Pāli *kaṭṭha*, Sanskrit *kāṣṭha*), or, according to Dr. Bühler, for *kvātha* or *kvāṭha*, 'a decoction.'

²⁴ Similar formations are *Ahila* and *Vasula* in the *Kudā* inscriptions, and *Himale*, *Isila* and *Sivalā* in the *Amarāvati* inscriptions.

No. 21 (liii. 21 ; Hoernle's No. 3).

Chitupāda-sila.

The Chitrôtpāda rock.²⁵

No. 22 (liii. 1 c).

Vedisā Chāpadavāyā Revatimita-bhāriyāya pāthama-thabho dānaṃ.

The first pillar (is) the gift of Chāpadēva, the wife of Rēvatimitra, from Vaidisa.

No. 23 (liii. 2 c).

Bhadāntasa²⁶ aya-Bhutarakhitasa Khujatidukiyasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the lord, the reverend Bhūtarakshita, from Kubjatinduka(?).

No. 24 (liii. 3 c).

Bhagavato Vesabhuno bodhi sālo.

The sāla (which was) the bōdhi (tree) of the blessed Visvabhū.

No. 25 (liii. 4 c).

Aya-Gorakhitasa thabho dānaṃ.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend Gōrakshita.

No. 26 (liii. 5 b, 6 b).

Aya-Pamthakasa thambho dānaṃ Chulakokā devatā.

A pillar, (representing) the goddess Kshudrakokā,²⁷ the gift of the reverend Panthaka.

No. 27 (liii. 7 b).

1 Dabhinikāya Mahamukhisa dhitu Badhika-

2 ya bhichhuniya dānaṃ.

The gift of the nun Badhikā,²⁸ the daughter of Mahāmukhi, from Dabhina(?).

No. 28 (liii. 8 b).

2 Pāṭaliputā Nāgasenāya Koḍi-

1 yāniyā dānaṃ.

The gift of Nāgasenā, a Kōḍyāni,²⁹ from Pāṭaliputra.

No. 29 (liii. 9 b).

1 Samanāyā bhikhuniyā Chudaṭṭhikāyā

2 dānaṃ.

The gift of the nun Śramaṇā³⁰ from Chudaṭṭhila.

No. 30 (liii. 11 b).

Bhagavato Konāgamenasa³¹ bodhi.

The bōdhi (tree) of the blessed Kōṇāgamana.

No. 31 (liii. 12 b).

Bhojakatakāya Diganagay[e] bhichhuniya dānaṃ.

The gift of the nun Dīṇāgā from Bhōjakata.³²

²⁵ Chitrā utpātā yatra sā silā, 'the rock where miraculous portents happen.' The Pāli utpāda represents both utpāda and utpāta; compare Anādhā^a for Anātha^a in No. 38.

²⁶ tasa looks like tāso, and the ta of Bhuta like tā.

²⁷ i. e. 'the little Kōkā.' Her counterpart, 'the big Kōkā,' is mentioned on Plate lv. of the Stūpa of Bharhut, No. 98, which reads:—Mahākoka devata.

²⁸ Perhaps Bōdhikā has to be restored. The name Bōdhi occurs in three Kuṇḍ inscriptions.

²⁹ Koḍiyāni, which is found again in No. 100, might be the feminine of Kodiya (No. 68); compare arya—aryāni, and kshatriya—kshatriyāni. On the Kōḍyas, a tribe residing near and related to the Śākya, see Dr. Kern's *Buddhismus*, translated by Jacobi, Vol. I. pp. 174 and 295. Besides, Koḍiyāni might correspond to the patronymic Kauṇḍiṇyāni; compare Kachchāna = Kātyāyana, and Moggallāna = Maudgalyāyana.

³⁰ It follows from Nos. 108 and 104, that Śramaṇā is here used as a proper name.

³¹ In the fourth syllable of Konāgamenasa we appear to have a case of short (Prākṛit) *e* for Sanskrit *a*. Short *e* for *i* occurs in *Peṭakini* (No. 134) for *Piṭakini*, and *Seri* (No. 149) for *Siri* (Śrī); short *e* for *u* in *Aboda* (No. 5) for *Arbuda*; long *ē* for *ā* in the termination *yē* (Nos. 65, 106, 120, 121, 146, 148 and 150) for *yāh*; and long *ō* for *ā* in *dāna* (No. 180) for *dāna*.—The first syllable of *bōdhi* is injured and looks like *bs*.

³² According to a grant of the Vāktaka king Pravarasēna II. the village of Charmāṅka,—the modern Chammak the Lichpur district,—belonged to the Bhōjakata-rāja; see Dr. Fleet's *Gupta Inscriptions*, p. 236.

No. 32 (liii. 13 b).

Nāga-jātaka.

The elephant *jātaka*.

No. 33 (liii. 14 b).

1 Bib[i]k[ā]nadikaṭa Budhino gahapatino

2 dānaṃ.

The gift of the householder **Buddhi** (*from*) **Bimbikānandikaṭa** (?).

No. 34 (liii. 15 b).

Supāvaso Yakho.

The *Yaksha* **Suprāvṛisha** (?).

No. 35 (liii. 16 b).

Dhamagutasa dānaṃ thabho.

A pillar, the gift of **Dharmagupta**.

No. 36 (liii. 17 b).

1 Bībikanadikaṭa Suladhasa asavārikā-

2 sa³³ dānaṃ.The gift of the trooper **Sulabḍha** (*from*) **Bimbikānandikaṭa**.

No. 37 (liii. 18 b, 19 b).

1 Pusasa thaṃbho dānaṃ

2 miga-jātakaṃ.

A pillar, (*representing*) the antelope *jātaka*, the gift of **Pushya**.

No. 38 (liii. 20 b).

Jetavana Anādhapeḍiko deti koṭi-saṃthatena ketā.

Anāthapiṇḍika gives **Jētavana**, (*which*) he has bought by a layer of crores (*of gold pieces*).

No. 39 (liii. 21 b).

Kosa[m]ba-kuṭi.

The hall at **Kausāmbi**.

No. 40 (liii. 22 b).

Ga[m]dhakuṭi.

The hall of perfumes.³⁴

No. 41 (liii. 23).

Dhamarakhitasa dānaṃ.

The gift of **Dharmarakshita**.

No. 42 (liii. 24).

Chakavāko Nāgarājā.

Chakravāka, the king of serpents.

No. 43 (liii. 25).

V[i]rūḍako Yakh[o].

The *Yaksha* **Virūḍhaka**.³⁵

No. 44 (liii. 26).

Gaṃgito Yakho.

The *Yaksha* **Gaṃgita**.

No. 45 (liv. 27; Hoernle's No. 17).

Aya-Isidinasa bhānakasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the reverend **Ṛishidatta**, a preacher.³³ Read *vārikasa*.³⁴ On *gandhakutī* see *ante*, Vol. XIV. p. 140, and *Arch. Survey of W. India*, Vol. V. p. 77.³⁵ See Böttlingk and Roth's *Sanskrit-Wörterbuch*, s. v., and Childers' *Pāli Dictionary*, s. v. *virūḍho*.

No. 46 (liv. 28; Hoernle's No. 11).

- 1 Bhagavato Sakamunino
- 2 bodho.

The *bôdha* (tree) of the blessed *Sākyamuni*.

No. 47 (liv. 29; Hoernle's No. 12 a).

- 1 Purathima [di]sa Sudhâ-
- 2 vâsâ de[va]t[â].

In the eastern direction, the deities (called) the *Suddhāvāsas*.

No. 48 (liv. 30; Hoernle's No. 12 b).

- 1 Utaram disa [tini sa]-
- 2 vatani sisâ[ni].

In the northern direction, [three covered] heads (?).

No. 49 (liv. 31; Hoernle's No. 13).

- 1 Dakhinam disa chha Kâ-
- 2 mâvachara-sahasâni.

In the southern direction, six thousand *Kâmâvacharas*.

No. 50 (liv. 32; Hoernle's No. 14).

1. Sâdika-saṃmadam
2. turam devanam.

The music³⁶ of the gods, which gladdens³⁷ by (*i. e.* which is accompanied with) acting.³⁸

No. 51 (liv. 33; Hoernle's No. 15 a).

Misakosi³⁹ Achharâ.

The *Apsaras* *Misrakêsi*.

No. 52 (liv. 34; Hoernle's No. 15 d).

Sabhad[â] Achhar[â].

The *Apsaras* *Subhadra*.

No. 53 (liv. 35; Hoernle's No. 15 c).

- 1 Padumâvati
- 2 Achharâ.

The *Apsaras* *Padmâvati*.

No. 54 (liv. 36; Hoernle's No. 15 b).

- 1 Alam-
- 2 busâ Achharâ.

The *Apsaras* *Alambushâ*.

No. 55 (liv. 37; Hoernle's No. 18).

Ka[n]dariki.

Kaṇḍariki.

No. 56 (liv. 38; Hoernle's No. 21).

- 1 Vijapi
- 2 Vijâdharo.

The *Vidyâdhara* *Vijayin*.⁴⁰

³⁶ On *tûra* for *tûrya*, see Hémachandra, ii. 63, and Dr. Fischel's note thereon.

³⁷ With *saṃmadâ* compare *samadaka* in No. 11.

³⁸ According to Böhrling and Roth, *s. v.*, Bharata explains *śatâka* by *nâṭaka-bhêda*.

³⁹ Read *Misakesi*.

⁴⁰ Vijapi might be derived from Vijayin by the double change of *y* to *v* and of *v* to *p*. Regarding the first change, see Dr. Kuhn's *Pâli-Grammatik*, p. 42 f. and *Arch. Survey of W. India*, Vol. IV. p. 99, note 1, where *Bhaddavantiya* (p. 109, text line 10) might be added. Instances of the second change (Kuhn, *l.c.* p. 45) are *Erapata* for *Airâvata* (Nos. 59 and 60), *Kupira* for *Kuvêra* (No. 92), *bhagapata* for *bhagavata* (*Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morg. Ges.* Vol. XXXVII. p. 557, No. 32) and *pârâpata* for *pârâvata* (*Jâtaka* No. 42).

No. 57 (liv. 39; Hoernle's No. 10 a).

Bhagavato dhamachakam.

The *dharmachakera* of the Blessed one.

No. 58 (liv. 40; Hoernle's No. 10 b).

1 Rājā Pasenaji

2 Kosalo.

King Prasēnajit the Kōsala.

No. 59 (liv. 41; Hoernle's No. 16 b).

Erapato [Nā]garājā.

Airāvata,⁴¹ the king of serpents.

No. 60 (liv. 42; Hoernle's No. 16 a).

1 Erapato Nāgarājā

2 Bhagavato vadate.

Airāvata, the king of serpents, worships the Blessed one.

No. 61 (liv. 43; Hoernle's No. 20).

Bahuhathiko.

(The *banyan tree*) Bahuhastika.⁴²

No. 62 (liv. 44; Hoernle's No. 19 a).

1 Bahuhathiko nigodho

2 Naḍode.

The banyan tree Bahuhastika on (Mount) Naḍōda.⁴³

No. 63 (liv. 45; Hoernle's No. 19 b).

1 Susupālo Koḍāyo⁴⁴

2 Veḍuko a-

3 rāmako.

Sisupāla the Kōḍya. The gardener Vēṇuka.⁴⁵

No. 64 (liv. 48, 49).

1 Chekulana-Saghamitasa thabho dānam

2 bhagavato Kasapasa bodhi.

A pillar, (representing) the *bōdhi* (tree) of the blessed Kāśyapa, the gift of Samghamitra from Chikulana.⁴⁶

No. 65 (liv. 50).

Nāgaye bhichhuniye dānam.

The gift of the nun Nāgā.

No. 66 (liv. 51).

Bhadamta-Valakasa bhanakasa dāna thabho.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend Valaka, a preacher.

No. 67 (liv. 52).

1 Karahakata

2 aya-Bhutakasa thabho dānam.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend Bhūtaka (from) Karahakata.

⁴¹ The *Chullavagga* (v. 6) uses the form *Ērāpātha*, which has been wrongly sanskritised by *Ēlāpatra*; see Dr. Kern's *Buddhismus*, translated by Jacobi, Vol. II. p. 234, note 3. The usual form *Ērāvata* is derived from the Sanskrit *Airāvata*, a vicarious form of *Airāvata*.

⁴² *Bahavā hastinā yatra saḥ*, 'where many elephants (are worshipping);' see the corresponding relief on Plate xv. of the *Stūpa of Bharhut*.

⁴³ Compare Nos. 18, 19, and *Stūpa of Bharhut*, Plate liv. where two identical inscriptions (Nos. 70 and 79) appear to read:—*Nadoda-pāḍe Ohenachhako*, "at the foot of (Mount) Nadōda"

⁴⁴ Probably *Koḍiyo* must be read; see p. 229, note 29, and compare No. 58, where the name of the country or tribe (Kosalo) likewise follows the name of the king (Pasenaji).

⁴⁵ See No. 18.

⁴⁶ Chekulana is synonymous with Chikulaniya in No. 88.

No. 68 (liv. 54).

Tikotiko chakamo.

The enclosure (*called*) **Trikôṭika**.⁴⁷

No. 69 (liv. 55).

Bhadata-Mahilasa thabho dānaṃ.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend **Mahila**.

No. 70 (liv. 56).

Karahakat[ā] Samikasa dāna thabho.

A pillar, the gift of **Syāmaka** from **Karahakata**.

No. 71 (liv. 57).

Bhadata-Samakasa thabho dānaṃ.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend **Syāmaka**.

No. 72 (liv. 58).

Yavamajhakiyaṃ jātakaṃ.

The *jātuka* (*which treats*) of the *yavamadhya*.⁴⁸

No. 73 (liv. 59).

Sirimā devata.

The goddess **Srimati**.

No. 74 (liv. 60).

Suchilomo Yakho.

The **Yaksha** **Suchiloma**.

No. 75 (liv. 61).

1 to bhikkhuniyā thabho

2 dānaṃ.

A pillar, the gift of the nun

No. 76 (liv. 62 ; Hoernle's No. 24).

Bhadatasa aya-Isipālitasa bhānakasa navakamikasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the lord, the reverend **Rishipālita**, a preacher, who superintends the building-operations.⁴⁹

No. 77 (liv. 63 ; Hoernle's No. 22).

Ajātasata Bhagavato vaṃdate.

Ajātasatru worships the Blessed one.

No. 78 (liv. 64 ; Hoernle's No. 25 a).

1 Sudharmā devasabhā

2 Bhagavato chūḍāmaho.

Sudharmā, the hall of the gods. The festival (*in honour*) of the hair-lock of the Blessed one.

No. 79 (liv. 65 ; Hoernle's No. 25 b).

1 Vejayaṃto pā-

2 sāde.⁵⁰**Vaijayanta**, the palace (*of* **Indra**).

No. 80 (liv. 66 ; Hoernle's No. 23).

Mahāsāmāyikāya Arāhaguto devaputo vokato Bhagavato⁵¹ sāsani paṭisaṃdhi.The angel **Arhadgupta**,⁵² having descended, announces to the great assembly the (*future*) conception of the Blessed one.⁴⁷ *Tierah kṛtayaḥ yasya saḥ*, 'triangular'; see the corresponding relief on Plate xxviii. of the *Stūpa of Bharhut*.⁴⁸ This is the name of a kind of *chāndrāyana*.⁴⁹ On *navakammika* see *Vinaya Texts*, Part III. pp. 189 ff. and compare *navakamaka* in an *Amarāvati* inscription (*Zeitschr. der Deutschen Morg. Ges.* Vol. XL, p. 846, No. 53) and *kammika*, ante, Vol. XIV. p. 334.⁵⁰ Probably a clerical mistake for *pāṣāḍo*.⁵¹ to looks almost like *tā*. Read *sāsati*.⁵² The name *Arāhaguta devaputa* is also contained in a fragmentary inscription on Plate lvi. No. 3, of the *Stūpa of Bharhut*.

No. 81 (liv. 67, 68).

1 Moragirimha Nāgilāyā bhikhuniyā dānaṃ thabhā

2 bhagavato Vipasino bodhi.

Pillars, (*representing*) the *bōdhi* (*tree*) of the blessed Vipasyin, the gift of the nun Nāgilā⁵³ from Mayūragiri.⁵⁴

No. 82 (liv. 69).

Vedisā Phagudevāsa dānaṃ.

The gift of Phalgudēva from Vaidisa.

No. 83 (liv. 71).

Purikāya dāyakana dānaṃ.

The gift of donors from Purikā.⁵⁵

No. 84 (liv. 72).

Bhagavato Kakusadhasa bodhi.

The *bōdhi* (*tree*) of the blessed Kakutsamīdha.

No. 85 (liv. 73, 74).

1 Vedisā Anurādhāya dānaṃ

2 Ohhadamtiya jātakam.

The *jātaka* (*which treats*) of the *Shaddanta* (*elephant*), the gift of Anurādha from Vaidisa.

No. 86 (liv. 75; Hoernle's No. 26).

Vitura-Punakiya jātakam.

The *jātaka* (*which treats*) of Vīdhura and Pūṇaka.

No. 87 (liv. 76).

Bramhadevo mānavako.

The youth Brahmadēva.

No. 88 (liv. 77).

Bhadata-Kanakasa bhanakasa thabho dānaṃ Chikulaniyasa.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend Kanaka, a preacher, from Chikulana.

No. 89 (liv. 78).

Yakhini Sudasana.

The *Yakṣiṇī* Sudarśanā.

No. 90 (liv. 80).

1 Bhadata-Budharakhitasa sa[tu]padā[na]-

2 sa dānaṃ thabho.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend Buddharakhita, who is versed in the sciences (?).

No. 91 (liv. 81).

Chadā Yakhi.

The *Yakṣi* Chandrā.

No. 92 (liv. 82).

Kupiro Yakho.

The *Yakṣa* Kuvēra.

No. 93 (liv. 83).

Ajakālo Yakho.

The *Yakṣa* Ādyakāloka.

⁵³ Regarding the formation of this name, see Pāṇini, v. 3, 84, and *Zeitschr. der Deutschen Morg. Ges.* Vol. XXVII. p. 551, No 5, note 2. Compare further Ghātala (No. 138), Mahila (No. 69), Saghila (No. 123) and Yakhila (No. 126).

⁵⁴ With Mayūragiri compare Mayūraparvata, a locality which is referred to in a quotation of the *Charana-eyūbhāshya*; see Dr. Buhler's translation of Āpastamba, p. xxxi note, and Dr. von Schroeder's *Maitrīyaṇī Samhitā*, p. xxiv.

⁵⁵ The same place is mentioned in Nos. 117 to 119. On a town of this name, which is referred to in the great epic, see Bocklingk and Roth's *Sanskrit-Wörterbuch*, s. v. At the time of the Śilāhāras, Purī was the capital of the Koṅkan; ante, Vol. XIII. p. 134. Another Purī in Orissa is well-known by its shrine of Jagannātha; ante, Vol. XX. p. 390.

No. 94 (lv. 84).

Moragirimhâ Pusâyâ dānaṃ thabhâ.

Pillars, the gift of Pushyâ from Mayûragiri.

No. 95 (lv. 85).

1 Aya-Chulasa Sutaṃtikasa Bhogavaḍha-

2 niyasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the reverend Kshudra, who is versed in the *Sūtrānta*,⁵⁶ from Bhôgavardhana.⁵⁷

No. 96 (lv. 86).

Moragirimhâ Thupadāsasa dānaṃ thabhâ.

Pillars, the gift of Stūpadāsa from Mayûragiri.

No. 97 (lv. 88).

1 Maharasa aṃtevasīno aya-Sāma-

2 kasa thabho dānaṃ.

A pillar, the gift of the reverend Syāmaka, the disciple of Mahara.

No. 98 (lv. 89).

Bhagavato okraṃti.⁵⁸

The descent of the Blessed one.

No. 99 (lv. 92).

Idasāla-guha.

The Indrasāla cave.

No. 100 (lv. 2).

Pāṭaliputā Kōḍiyāniyā Sakaṭadēvāyā dānaṃ.

The gift of Sakaṭadēva, a Kōḍiyāni, from Pāṭaliputra.

No. 101 (lv. 3).

Kākandīya Somāya bhichhuniya dānaṃ.

The gift of the nun Sōmā from Kākandī.⁵⁹

No. 102 (lv. 4).

Pāṭaliputā Mahādasenasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Mahāndrasēna from Pāṭaliputra.

No. 103 (lv. 5).

Chudathlikāyā Nāgadēvāyā bhikhuniyī⁶⁰ [dānaṃ].

The gift of the nun Nāgadēvā from Chudathila.

No. 104 (lv. 6).

Chudathlikāyā Kōjarāyā dānaṃ.

The gift of Kōñjarā from Chudathila.

No. 105 (lv. 7).

Dha[m]maguta-matu Pusadevaya dānaṃ.

The gift of Pushyadēvā, the mother of Dharmagupta.

No. 106 (lv. 8).

[U]jhikāye dāna.

The gift of Ujjhikā.

No. 107 (lv. 9).

[Dha]marakhitaya dāna suchi.

A rail, the gift of Dharmarakshitā.

⁵⁶ On *Suttantika*, see *Vinaya Texts*, Part I. p. xxx. and on the school of the *Sautrāntikas*, Dr. Kern's *Buddhismus*, translated by Jacobi, Vol. II. p. 504.⁵⁷ The same place is repeatedly mentioned in the Sāñchi inscriptions.⁵⁸ The first letter of this word looks like 2, which is phonetically impossible.⁵⁹ Kākandī is mentioned in the *Paṭṭāvalī* of the *Kharataragachha*; ante, Vol. XI. p. 247.⁶⁰ Read *bhikhuniyā*.

- No. 108 (lv. 10).
- Atimutasa dānaṃ.
The gift of **Atimukta**.
- No. 109 (lv. 11).
- Laṭuvā-jātaka.
The *laṭuvā jātaka*.
- No. 110 (lv. 12).
- Nadutaraya dāna suchi.
A rail, the gift of **Nandottara**.
- No. 111 (lv. 13).
- [Mu]ḍasa dānaṃ.
The gift of **Muṇḍa**.
- No. 112 (lv. 14).
- Isānasa dāna.
The gift of **Isāna**.
- No. 113 (lv. 15).
- Isidatasa dānaṃ.
The gift of **Isidatta**.
- No. 114 (lv. 16).
- Aya-Punāvasuno suchi dānaṃ.
A rail, the gift of the reverend **Punarvasu**.
- No. 115 (lv. 19).
- Devarakhitasa dānaṃ.
The gift of **Dēvarakshita**,
- No. 116 (lv. 20).
- Vedisāto Bhutarakhitasa dānaṃ.
The gift of **Bhūtarakshita** from **Vaidisa**.
- No. 117 (lvi. 22).
- Purikayā Idadevāya dānaṃ.
The gift of **Indradēva** from **Purika**.
- No. 118 (lvi. 23).
- Purikāyā Setaka-mātu dānaṃ.
The gift of the mother of **Srēṣṭhaka**,⁶¹ from **Purika**.
- No. 119 (lvi. 24).
- Purikāyā Sāmāya dānaṃ.
The gift of **Syama** from **Purika**.
- No. 120 (lvi. 25).
- Budharakhitāye dānaṃ bhichhuniye.
The gift of the nun **Buddharakshita**.
- No. 121 (lvi. 26).
- Bhutaye bhichhuniye dānaṃ.
The gift of the nun **Bhūta**.
- No. 122 (lvi. 27).
- Aya-Apikinakasa dānaṃ.
The gift of the reverend **Apikinaka**.⁶²
- No. 123 (lvi. 28).
- Saghilasa dāna suchi.
A rail, the gift of **Samghila**.

⁶¹ Regarding the loss of the aspiration, see Dr. Kuhn's *Pāli-Grammatik*, p. 41, and compare Asaḍā for Ashāḍhā (No. 9), Viruḍaka for Virūḍhaka (No. 48), and Vitura for Vidhura (No. 86).

⁶² Compare Ampikinaka in a Bhājā inscription; *Arch. Survey of W. India*, Vol. IV, p. 82, No. 3.

No. 124 (lvi. 29).

Sagharakhitasa mātāpituna aṭhāyā dānaṃ.

The gift of Saṃgharakshita for the benefit of (*his*) mother and father.

No. 125 (lvi. 30).

Dhntasa suchi dāno.⁶³

A rail, the gift of Dhūrta.

No. 126 (lvi. 31).

Yakhilasa suchi dāna.

A rail, the gift of Yakshila.

No. 127 (lvi. 32).

Mitasa suchi dānaṃ.

A rail, the gift of Mītra.

No. 128 (lvi. 33).

Isirakhitasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Rishirakshita.

No. 129 (lvi. 34).

Sirimasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Śrīmat.

No. 130 (lvi. 35).

Bhadata-Devasenasa donan.⁶⁴

The gift of the reverend Dēvasēna.

No. 131 (lvi. 36).

. kaya bhichhuniya dānaṃ.

The gift of the nun

No. 132 (lvi. 37).

N[am]d[i]nagarikaya Idadevāya dānaṃ.

The gift of Indradēva from Nandinagara.⁶⁵

No. 133 (lvi. 40).

Jēṭhabhadrassa dānaṃ.

The gift of Jyēṣṭhabhadra.

No. 134 (lvi. 41).

Aya-Jātasa Peṭakino suchi dānaṃ.

A rail, the gift of the reverend Jāta, who is versed in the *Piṭakas*.

No. 135 (lvi. 42).

Budharakhitasa rupakārakasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the sculptor Buddharakshita.

No. 136 (lvi. 43).

Bhadata-Samikasa Therāk[ā]ṭiyasa dānaṃ.

The gift of the reverend Syamaka from Sthavirākṛta.

No. 137 (lvi. 44).

Sirisapada Isirakhitāya dānaṃ.

The gift of Rishirakshitā (from) Śirishapadra.⁶⁶⁶³ *dāna* is used as a masculine !⁶⁴ The *ḍ* probably represents a dimmed (*saṃvṛita*) pronunciation of the vowel *ā*.⁶⁵ A place of this name is mentioned in several Sāñchi inscriptions.⁶⁶ A village called Śirishapadraka is mentioned in two inscriptions of the Gurjara dynasty; *ante*, Vol. XIII. pp. 82 and 88. Similar names are Sāmalipada (Sālmaltipadra) in a Nāsik inscription (*Arch. Survey of W. India*, Vol. IV. p. 111) and Vaṭapadra, the modern Baroda (*ante*, Vol. XII. p. 124, note 85).

No. 138 (lvi. 45).

Moragirimā⁶⁷ Ghāṭila-matu dānaṃ.

The gift of the mother of Ghāṭila, from Mayūragiri.

No. 139 (lvi. 47).

Samidatāya dānaṃ.

The gift of Svamidattā.

No. 140 (lvi. 48).

Chulanasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Chullana.⁶⁸

No. 141 (lvi. 49).

Avisanasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Avishaṇṇa.⁶⁹

No. 142 (lvi. 50).

[A]visanasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Avishaṇṇa.

No. 143 (lvi. 51).

Saṃghamitasa bodhichakasa dānaṃ.

The gift of a *bōdhichakasa* by Saṃghamitra.

No. 144 (lvi. 52).

Budharakhitasa Pachanekāyikasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Buddharakshita, who is versed in the five *Nikāyas*.⁷⁰

No. 145 (lvi. 53).

Isirakhitasa⁷¹ suchi dānaṃ.

A rail, the gift of Rishirakshita.

No. 146 (lvi. 55).

Phagudevāye bhichhuniye dānaṃ.

The gift of the nun Phalgudēva.

No. 147 (lvi. 56).

Koḍāya Yakhiyā dānaṃ.

The gift of a *Yakshī* by Krōḍā.⁷²

No. 148 (lvi. 57).

Ghosāye dānaṃ.

The gift of Ghōshā.

No. 149 (lvi. 59).

Seriya putasa Bhāranidevasa dānaṃ.

The gift of Bharanidēva, the son of Sri.

No. 150 (lvi. 60).

Mitadevāye dānaṃ.

The gift of Mitradēva.

No. 151.⁷³

Isānasa dāna.

The gift of Īsāna.

⁶⁷ *Moragirimā* is either a clerical mistake for *Moragirimhā*, or stands for the assimilated form *Moragirimvā*. Compare *vañchitammi* for *vañchitāsmi*, and *paṇṇikā* for *pārāṇṇikā* in the *Jātaka*, Vol. I. pp. 287 and 445.

⁶⁸ This word is derived from *chulla* (Sanskrit *kuhūdra*). Compare *Dhamanaka*, *Nākanaka*, *Pusanaka*, *Rāmanaka*, *Usabhanaka* and *Vasulanaka* in the cave inscriptions.

⁶⁹ Compare *Avisinā* in two Sāñchi inscriptions.

⁷⁰ See Childers' *Pāli Dictionary*, s. v. *nekāyiko*.

⁷¹ *tasa* looks like *tāsa*.

⁷² Compare *Koḍi* in a Kārlī inscription (*Arch. Survey of W. India*, Vol. IV. p. 91, No. 16) and *Koḍa* in a Sopārā inscription (Dr. Bh. Indrajī's *Sopārā and Padana*, p. 18). The word *dānaṃ* governs both a subjective and an objective genitive, as in No. 143; see Pāṇini, ii. 3, 65.

⁷³ On the same rail as the identical inscription No. 112, but in more modern characters.

No. 152.⁷⁴

Bo[dhigu]tasa dānaṃ.
The gift of Bôdhigupta.

No. 153.⁷⁵

..... Himavate i

No. 154.⁷⁶

..... [m]ika[sa dānaṃ].

No. 155 (xxv. 4; lv. 94).⁷⁷

M[u]ga[pa]k[i]y[a] j[ā]ta[ka].
The *jātaka* (which treats) of the cooking of beans (P).

No. 156 (xxvi. 7).

Isis[iṅgiya jā]ta[ka].
The *jātaka* (which treats) of *Ṛisyaśringa*.

No. 157 (xxvi. 8; lv. 97).

Yam bram[h]ano avayesi jatakam.
The *jātaka* (entitled) "yam brāhmaṇo avādēsi."

No. 158 (xxvii. 11; liii. 11).

Haṃsa-jātaka.
The swan *jātaka*.

No. 159 (lvi. 66).

Tirami timigila-kuchhimha Vasuguto mächito Mahadevānam.⁷⁸

Vasugupta is rescued from the belly of the sea-monster (and brought) on shore by Mahādēva.⁷⁹

No. 160 (lvi. 19).

1 [Ba]huhathika āsana

2 [bhaga]vato Mahādevasa.

The seat of the blessed Mahādēva (under the banyan tree) Bahuhastika.⁸⁰

PRAKRIT AND SANSKRIT INDEX.⁸¹

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⁷⁴ On rail 8, Plate xxxviii. No. 3; much injured.

⁷⁵ On rail 12, Plate xxiv. No. 3.

⁷⁶ On pillar 28, Plate xix.

⁷⁷ Nos. 155 to 160, the originals of which were not removed to Calcutta, are transcribed from General Cunningham's photographs and eye-copies in his *Stûpa of Bharhut*.

⁷⁸ Read *Tirami timigila-kuchhimhā Vasuguto mächito Mahādevana*.

⁷⁹ See the corresponding relief on Plate xxxiv. No. 2, of the *Stûpa of Bharhut*. Mahādēva probably refers to the Mahāsatta or Bôdhisatta; compare No. 160.

⁸⁰ See p. 232, note 42.

⁸¹ Arabic figures refer to the Nos. of the inscriptions, Roman figures to the Plates of the *Stûpa of Bharhut*.

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THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.C.S., and revised by the Author.

(Continued from page 210).

PART II.

MIXED SANSKRIT AND CLASSICAL SANSKRIT.

It is in the monuments of the last Kshaharāta, Nahapāna, and in those of the first Andhrabhṛityas that we find the knot of the questions with which we are concerned. According to my opinion, these monuments are dated with certainty. Even for those who may not share my opinion, they are not one whit of less capital importance. A difference of 50 or 100 years is, in this matter, of small consequence, and, at any rate, there can be no dispute about one point, *vis.*, that all these texts are to all intents and purposes contemporaneous. Nevertheless, from the point of view of language, they present characteristic differences.

At Nāsik, Kārli, and Junnar, seven inscriptions⁵¹ of the reign of Nahapāna have been brought to notice. Not only do they all belong to the same time, but also, with the exception of the last, they all emanate from the same person, Usavadāta, son-in-law of Nahapāna. Of these inscriptions, one, No. 5 at Nāsik, appears at the first glance to be couched in grammatical Sanskrit, spelled according to classical rules. But, on closer examination, we observe more than one irregularity, the transgression of certain rules of Saṁdhi, Prākṛitizing methods of spelling,⁵² such as *dvātrīsatnāligēra°*, *lēṇam*, *pōḍhiyō*, *bhaṭārkaṇātiya°*, *varshārataṁ*, *utamabhadraṁ*, &c. These irregularities, which are very rare at the commencement, multiply towards the end of the inscription. Another (Nāsik 6 A) is, on the other hand, entirely Prākṛit in its terminations; homogeneous consonants are not doubled; *r* is retained after a consonant (*kshatrapa*), but assimilated where it precedes (*savaṇa*); it distinguishes three sibilants, but, by the side of *śata*, we read *sata*, and even *panarasa* for *pañchadaśa*; by the side of the ordinary assimilations of Prākṛit, the group *ksha* is retained unchanged, and we find *nētyaka* equivalent to the Sanskrit *naityaka*. It is hardly otherwise with No. 7 of Nāsik. It contains both *kuṣana* and *kasana*, *śrēṇīsu* beside *Ushavadāta*,⁵³ *kārshāpaṇa* and *kāhāpaṇa*, *sata* and *śata*, all which does not prevent its using the vowel *ṛi* in *kṛita*.

In another inscription, No. 19 of Kārli, pure Prākṛit reigns supreme, except in the orthographies *brāhmaṇa* and *bhāryā*. The fact is the more striking because the formula employed is the exact counterpart of the Sanskrit formula of the monument first referred to. The case is the same at Nāsik, in Nos. 8-9, save for the orthographies *putra*, *kshatrapa*, and *kshaharāta*, by the side of *Dakhamitā* (equivalent to *Dakshamitrā*). Finally, in No. 11 of Junnar, the *ksha* gives way to *kh*, which, nevertheless, does not prevent them from writing *amātya* and not *amacha*, by the side of *sāmi* for *svāmi*, and even of *maṭapa* for *maṇḍapa*. I cannot dispense with again referring to No. 10 of Nāsik which, although we are unable to fix its date with precision, is undoubtedly contemporaneous. This time, the terminations, the genitive masculine in *asya*, have the appearance of Sanskrit; but we also find the genitive *-varmanah*, side by side with *varmasya*; as a general rule the orthography is Sanskrit, but, nevertheless, we read in it *gimhapalehē*, *chōthē* (= *chaturthē*), *vishniudatādyā*, *gilānabhēshaja*. This is the exact reverse of the preceding inscriptions, which write *kshatrapa*, and have the genitive in *asa*.

This capricious and unequal mixture of classical and popular forms is no new thing. In the literature of the Northern Buddhists, it has a name. It is the 'Gāthā dialect.' Nowadays, that this same mode of writing has been found not only in prose religious

⁵¹ Cf. *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* IV. pp. 99 and ff.⁵² Hoernle, *Ind. Ant.* 1883, pp. 27 and ff.⁵³ *Ushavadāta* itself could easily contain an instance of confusion between the sibilants. The *v*, which is almost constant, does not appear to me to lend itself to the transcription *ṛishabhadatta* of Dr. Bühler. It is, unless I am mistaken, *Utsavadatta*, which we should understand.

treatises, but also in lay⁵⁴ works, and that we meet it in the texts of inscriptions, this terminology has become both inaccurate and inconvenient. I propose to substitute the term 'Mixed Sanskrit,' a name which will, I hope, be justified by the observations which follow.

The same caves preserve the memory of the Andhrabhṛityas who were contemporary with or the immediate successors of Nahapāna, — Gotamīputa Sātakaṇi and his descendants.⁵⁵ In general (Nāsik, 11 A, 11 B, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 22; Kārli, 20, 21; Kanḥēri, 4, 14, 15) the inscriptions are couched in pure Prakṛit, though not without certain inconsistencies in detail (*svāmi* beside *°sāmīyēhi*, Nās. 11 A, 15); *Pulumāyi* (Nās. 13, beside *Pulumāvi*, Nās. 15, and *Pulumāi*, Nās. 12, &c.). This means that assimilation occurs everywhere, though the consonants are never written double. This does not, however, prevent us from finding at Kārli (No. 22), a donation of the reign of Vāsiṣṭhīputa Pulumāyi, which has *siddhaṇi*, according to the classical method; which, beside numerous genitives in *asa*, writes *puttasya*, *sōvasakasya*, *vāthavasya*, and, beside *niḥitō*, *hitasughasth(i)ṭayē*. It thus unites in the same word forms which were already no longer found in the inscriptions of Piyādasi, and others which are still rare in the 2nd century of our era, to which epoch they belong! On the other hand, at Kanḥēri (No. 11)⁵⁶, a dedication of the reign of Vāsishṭhīputra Sātakaṇi, the son-in-law of the Satrap Rudradāman, is couched in pure Sanskrit, save for one single irregularity: *Sātakaṇisya*.

Are these facts, I will not say isolated, but circumscribed in a narrow region? Quite the contrary. It is sufficient for conviction to cast the eye over the monuments of the Turushka kings, Kanishka and his dynasty, monuments which are either exactly contemporary with those to which we have just referred, or of very little earlier date. The inscription of Suē Vihar⁵⁷ is dated the 11th year of Kanishka. It may be said to be couched in Sanskrit, but in a Sanskrit seriously disfigured by spellings like *bhichhusya*, *aḥavi(m)śē*, *nagadatasya*, *samkhakafisya(?)*, *yaḥim*, *yaḥipratīḥanam*, &c. In the 18th year of the same reign, the stone of Manikyāla,⁵⁸ however imperfectly we may understand it, allows us clearly to recognise, side by side with the retention of the three sibilants and of groups containing an *r*, a number of Prakṛit forms, such as *°budhisa*, the termination *aś*, *maharajasa*, *vēspaśisa*, *chhatrapasa*, &c. Mathurā possesses, from the year 28,⁵⁹ a fragment of correct Sanskrit. So also for the time of Huviṣka. At Mathurā (Growse, 2, 11; Dowson, 1, 2, 5, 7) the language of the dedications is classical; yet they present the genitive *bhikhusya*, and the phrase *asya* (or *ēlasya*) *pūrvāyē*. On the Wardak vase, in the year 51, appear forms so much altered as *thuvamhi* (= *stūpē*), *bhagaś*, *arōgadaochhinaś*, to speak only of those which are certain. The date of the inscription of Taxila is not fixed with certainty, but I do not think that any one can consider it as more modern than those to which I have just referred; and the name *Ohkhakarāta*, which I think I have identified at the end of the first line seems to assign it a place in about the same epoch, or in an epoch slightly earlier. Here, excepting the sibilants and a few groups (*chhatrapa bhratara*, *vardhita*, *sarva*, *samvatsara*), everything is Prakṛit, the genitive in *asa*, the assimilation in *aḥa*, *takhasīla*, *pratīḥapita*, &c., and mixed up with very debased forms such as the locative *samvatsarayē*, and the dative *puyāś*.

It is necessary to complete this review, by noting that it is towards the end of the period of which we are treating, towards the year 75 or 80 of the Śaka era, i.e. 155 to 160 A. D., that we find the first known inscription in perfectly correct Sanskrit, — the inscription of the

⁵⁴ The Bashkhalī Manuscript, which has been published by Dr. Hoernle.

⁵⁵ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* pp. 104 and ff.

⁵⁶ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* V. p. 78.

⁵⁷ Hoernle, *Ind. Ant.* X. 324 and ff. Pandit Bhagwanlal Indraji has submitted this document to an independent revision (*Ind. Ant.* 1892, p. 128), in which he has frequently come to conclusions different from those of Dr. Hoernle. In cases of divergency, except in certain doubtful passages in which the truth appears to me to be still undiscovered, I consider that it is Dr. Hoernle who is right.

⁵⁸ Dowson, *J. R. A. S.* XX. p. 250.

⁵⁹ Growse, *Ind. Ant.* 1877, pp. 216 and ff. Dowson, *J. R. A. S., N. S.* V. 182 and ff. (after Cunningham).

Satrap king Rudradāman, at Gīrnar.⁶⁰ The inscription of Jasdhan, dated 127, and consequently 50 years later, emanating from the grandson of Rudradāman, only returns to the mistakes of Mixed Sanskrit in a few details.⁶¹

What is precisely this Mixed Sanskrit?

Various attempts have been made to explain its existence and its peculiarities. It has been held to be a dialect intermediate between the ancient period of Sanskrit and the more modern period of the Prakrits; — a sort of jargon created by ignorance or, if it is preferred, by incomplete knowledge on the part of the people, their ambition being incommensurate with their powers, who wished to give themselves the honour of writing in the literary language, without possessing a sufficient acquaintance with it (Burnouf); — the special dialect of bards, who appear to have taken a middle course between the popular speech and the learned language, in order to make themselves intelligible, without too great derogation, to their audience (Rajendralāla Mitra).

Neither of these explanations, taken alone and in the exact meaning which was intended by its author, can be reconciled with facts as they are known to us at the present day.

The conjecture of Burnouf was an excellent explanation, when he seemed to be dealing with only a few stanzas lost in a vast literature. We can no longer attribute to the pedantry of an editor or of a clumsy scribe a language which is employed on a vast scale, and applied to royal inscriptions, and we are unable to explain by a vulgar ignorance a mixture, which rather appears to bear witness to an extensive acquaintance with the literary language.

It is no more possible to represent, as a special poetical language, a dialect which is fluently used in the inscriptions, and which is employed in lengthy prose works and even in didactic treatises.

As for seeing in Mixed Sanskrit the direct expression of the current language at a certain period of its development, the theory hardly deserves the trouble of refutation. A dialect so void of all stability, at one moment closely resembling classical Sanskrit, and at another very different from it, a dialect which brings together, in complete confusion and in arbitrary proportions, phonetic phenomena which belong to most unequal degrees of linguistic development, could never be a faithful echo of the popular language at any epoch whatever. Mixed Sanskrit is, neither in its grammar nor in its phonetics, intermediate between Sanskrit and the Prakrits; it constitutes an incoherent mixture of forms purely Sanskrit and of forms purely Prakrit, which is an altogether different thing.

Mixed Sanskrit has, moreover, a history. In the chronological series of monuments which it is represented, far from shewing signs of gradually increasing phonetic decay, it continues to approach more and more nearly to classical orthography and to classical forms. In the inscriptions of Mathurā, the remnants of Prakrit orthography are so rare, that the general appearance as a whole is that of pure Sanskrit.⁶²

This observation comes to our assistance in answering the question which we have before us. It is not sufficient to know what Mixed Sanskrit is not. We must determine what it is.

Towards the end of the 2nd century, we find upon the monuments three dialects which, in their phonetic condition, appear to correspond to different ages of the physiological development of the language: Sanskrit, Mixed Sanskrit, and Prakrit. All three are destined in the future to continue concurrently in literature. Here we find them used side by side, at the same time, and at the same places. It is inadmissible to suppose that they represent contemporary states of the vulgar tongue; at most, that could be represented only by the most corrupted of the three dialects, the Prakrit. As for Mixed Sanskrit, like

⁶⁰ *Arch. Surv. West. Ind.* III. p. 128.

⁶¹ Hoernle, *Ind. Ant.* 1888, p. 32.

⁶² This gradation becomes still more evident if, as we ought to do, we take as our point of departure the inscriptions of Piyadasi at Gurnar and at Kapur di Giri.

regular Sanskrit itself, it cannot be anything other than a special literary language, or, more exactly, a special literary orthography. In itself, it is no more surprising to find side by side two literary idioms like Sanskrit and Mixed Sanskrit than to find the parallel use of the various Prākṛit dialects which were established for religious or poetic usage. From the facts proved for the time of Piyadasi, we are prepared to see a double orthographical current establish itself, one more near to the popular pronunciation, and the other approaching, and tending to approach more and more nearly, etymological forms. In the hundred and fifty or two hundred years which separate our edicts from the most ancient monuments of Mixed Sanskrit properly so-called, these tendencies, which we have grasped in their rudimentary state, have had time to become accentuated, and to develop in the strict logical sequence of their principles. As it appears to us in the most recent monuments, Mixed Sanskrit is so nearly the same as Sanskrit, that it seems impossible to separate the history of one dialect from that of the other. What is the relationship which unites the two ?

From the time when Sanskrit first appears, we find it in a definite form. Neither in grammar nor in its orthography do we find any feeling the way, any development, any progress. It leaps ready armed from its cradle. As it was at the first day, so it has remained to the end. Mixed Sanskrit is altogether different. Uncertain in its orthographical methods, without any absolute system or stability, it appears to us, from Kapur di Giri to Mathurā, progressing, in spite of many hesitations, in spite of many minor inconsistencies, in one continuous general direction. At Kapur di Giri the language is entirely Prākṛit, but several consonantal groups are preserved without assimilation. In the inscription of Dhanabhūti at Mathurā,⁶² the terminations are Prākṛit, but spellings like *vātsīputra*, *ratnagrīha* approach the classical standard. At Suē Vihar, even the terminations take the learned spelling; *asya* and not *asa*; only a few irregularities connect the language with Prākṛit. In the caves we have seen that some inscriptions have side by side the genitive in *asya* and that in *asa*. These examples will suffice.

Besides these characteristics, two important facts, which mark their true significance, deserve mention.

In the north, the first inscriptions written in Sanskrit, or at least so nearly Sanskrit that they bear witness to its diffusion, are those of Mathurā, and date from the reign of Kanishka. Shortly after this period we find no further examples of monumental Mixed Sanskrit. In the west, the son-in-law of Rudradaman inaugurates the use of Sanskrit with the inscription of Kaphēri; from the end of the second century, the use of Mixed Sanskrit is, in the west, banished from the inscriptions. In a word, the introduction of regular Sanskrit marks the disuse of Mixed Sanskrit. That is the first fact.

The second is of another nature. All texts in Mixed Sanskrit, both in the north and in the west, preserve uniformly one very characteristic peculiarity, which we have already noticed in the spelling of Piyadasi. They never write as double, identical or homogeneous consonants, which are really doubles either by origin or by assimilation. This trait only disappeared at the precise moment when Mixed Sanskrit ceased to be used. In the north, the first inscriptions which double these consonants are those of Mathurā, which are almost entirely couched in regular Sanskrit. The practice was certainly a new one, for the other inscriptions of the reign of Kanishka, even those which, as at Suē Vihar, approach most nearly the learned orthography, do not adopt it. It is quite true that they are

⁶² *Bharhut Stūpa*, pl. LIII. 4. The transcription proposed by General Cunningham requires corrections. We should read,—

Kaḥ dhana
bhātisa vātsī
putrasa [vādhapō] lasa
ghanabhātisa dānam vātsīkā
torāṇi cha ratanagrīha sa
rvabudhapūjya saha mātṛpī
tihī (?) saha . chatu . parishāhi

engraved in the Aramean alphabet of the north-west, while the Indian alphabet is employed at Mathurā; but at Mathurā itself, the inscription of Dhanabhūti, although written in Indian characters, does not observe the practice of doubling any more than they do. This neglect is, therefore, not the peculiarity of one particular mode of writing; it is a general fact down to a certain epoch, which, in the north is marked by the reign of Kanishka. On the west coast, the first inscription in which we find the notation of double consonants is No. 11 of Kanhēri (*Arch. Surv.* V. 85). It is one of the latest of the series, and is certainly not earlier than the end of the 2nd century. The doubling of consonants, therefore, only makes its appearance at the period in which the monuments testify that correct Sanskrit was becoming taken into common use, and the parallel application, in the inscriptions of the time of Kanishka, of the ancient procedure, and of the new method, indicates that we have grasped the precise moment of the evolution.

It is not difficult to come to a conclusion.

Mixed Sanskrit is certainly not a direct copy of literary Sanskrit, attempted at an epoch when the latter had already been established in common use. The progressive march by which it gradually approximated classical forms as well as its feeling its way in matters of detail, would be, under this hypothesis, without any possible explanation. Its tendency towards an etymological and regulated orthography is everywhere visible. If it had had before its eyes a fixed, a definitive model, previously realized by writing and literary practice, it would from the first have imitated it in all its particulars. It would not have waited three centuries before doubling its consonants in writing. As it constantly tended to go as close as possible to the orthographical conditions, of which the learned Sanskrit is the completed perfect type, it would have gone right up to it. From the moment at which real Sanskrit appears, Mixed Sanskrit disappears, and this most naturally; for, in face of real Sanskrit, Mixed Sanskrit is without reason for existence, its efforts would be without honour, and its shortcomings without excuse. Far, therefore, from being able to pass for an imitation of pre-existing Sanskrit, Mixed Sanskrit proves, by its very existence, that Literary Sanskrit did not exist, I mean for current use. The date on which the classical language appears in the monuments, coincides with that at which the Mixed Sanskrit ceases to be employed, and marks very exactly the epoch at which the learned language took possession of that empire which was destined never to escape it. This conclusion is further strengthened by the fact that the current of this diffusion may, at least in one direction, be traced by the monuments. Regular Sanskrit can be considered as under process of establishment in the north-west towards the end of the first century of our era. The practice immediately began to spread towards the south. In the second half of the following century, the inscription of Rudradāman presents to our notice, in Gujārāt, the first incontestable monument. It was the influence of the same sovereign which caused it to extend still further, for in an inscription of his daughter it makes its first appearance in the dominions of the Andhrabhṛityas. Until then these princes had only employed a Monumental Prakṛit now and then affecting the appearance of Mixed Sanskrit.

Although Mixed Sanskrit is not a direct imitation of a pre-existing Sanskrit, the close connexion between the two terms is evident. But is, therefore, Mixed Sanskrit the source of Classical Sanskrit? Is it Classical Sanskrit in course of formation? By no means, any more than the converse case is true. The reasons are peremptory.

All the elements from which Sanskrit, in its classical form, has been built up, were pre-existing in the Vedic language. Its system of phonetics, which is that which gives it its special character in comparison with the popular idioms, had long been fixed and analysed for the purpose of religious recitation. In order, therefore, to fix Sanskrit, there was no room for much feeling of the way. So far as there may have been any, it was certainly not of the kind we witness in Mixed Sanskrit. In fixing classical Sanskrit, a regular course would have been followed, instead of the constant alternate progress and retrogression which we find in the mixed variety. We do not find in it side by side the two-fold reflexion, the learned and the

popular, of the same forms. So also, the classical language, being derived directly from the learned and Vedic tradition could have made no delay in noting the duplication of consonants.

It should not, however, be assumed that Literary Sanskrit must have sprung at once from the schools into public life. The necessary grammatical elaboration, even the accommodation of the alphabet to its needs, must have required a greater or less length of time, but the course of its development was certainly not the same as that which the inscriptions allow us to see in the case of Mixed Sanskrit, with its inconsistencies, and its blunders.

While Mixed Sanskrit is neither the reflected imitation nor the source of classical Sanskrit, it is, nevertheless, something of both. If Sanskrit had previously existed in common use, Mixed Sanskrit would never have existed at all; but at the same time, unless Sanskrit had been in existence to serve for its type, the existence of Mixed Sanskrit would have been equally impossible. This paradox is not difficult to solve, if we place before us the very peculiar conditions which have ruled the linguistic development of India.

Sanskrit presents itself to our notice under an aspect calculated to perplex the observer. Literary languages are usually vulgar tongues in current use, which, being applied, at a moment of high intellectual development, to works destined to endure as abiding national monuments, have been through the means of these works crystallised into a shape which becomes the norm for future writers. Not so with Sanskrit. It does not issue directly from the popular idiom. It first appears at an epoch when the vulgar and general tongue had, for centuries, arrived at a much further advanced degree of phonetic and grammatical degeneration. It represents an archaic language preserved at first by oral tradition, and subsequently retouched by the labours of learned men. It is, in a manner, a literary language in the second degree, — a profane language, grafted on a more ancient religious one; or, to state the matter more accurately, it represents the reform of an earlier literary language.

The oral preservation of the Vedic hymns down to an epoch when the language in which they were composed had long ceased to be used by the people, is a cardinal point in the linguistic history of India. A caste had kept guard over the treasure of religious songs. Their importance for ritual assured their conservation to the most minute degree; the necessity of protecting their efficacy together with their material form gave rise to rules of pronunciation. These gradually developed into a phonetic system which was refined even to subtilty, and which prepared the way for the study of grammar properly so-called. The religious bearing of the hymns inspired the zeal necessary for assuring their oral transmission; and the fear of making the privilege common to all, maintained the oral tradition even down to an epoch when it would have been easy to substitute for it preservation by the art of writing.

Whatever may have been the authority of this tradition, the knowledge of writing could not have failed to exercise a sensible action on the future of the language, and this action was the more certain, because the attention already paid to the phonetic questions had the better prepared men's intellects for the application of writing and for the comprehension of the questions of grammar.

Being given this state of things and the introduction of so new and so powerful a factor, we have now to see how affairs actually occurred, and how, on the one hand Classical Sanskrit and on the other hand Mixed Sanskrit were developed.

Sanskrit by its roots which dive deep into the language and the tradition of the Vêdas, by its regularity founded on earlier phonetic studies, by its most ordinary applications, is essentially a Brâhmanical language.⁶³ By the manner in which it was constituted and fixed, it is a scholastic language, born and elaborated in restricted and exclusive surroundings.

⁶³ This character is so marked, that the fact, that such inscriptions as those of Nânâghât, although entirely devoted to the commemoration of liturgic ceremonies, are couched in Prâkrit, would almost of itself suffice to prove that, at the period to which they must be referred, Sanskrit had not yet expanded into exterior use. At any rate, it furnishes a remarkable confirmation of the conclusions on which I am endeavouring to throw some light.

It is quite otherwise with **Mixed Sanskrit**. Every application of it which is known to us, whether in monuments or in literature, is, without exception, **Buddhistic**. The irregularities and inconsistencies of its grammar and of its orthography mark it with an evident character of spontaneity. It is not a dialect which has undergone alterations and after-touches, or which has bowed itself to those precise rules which denote the idea of a really literary language.

From this two-fold point of view, therefore, the contrast between the two dialects is as marked, as, in other respects, their analogies are striking, and such hints are of considerable value to us.

There is little appearance of the every-day use of writing in India much before the time of **Asôka**. The inscriptions of **Asôka** are certainly the most ancient examples of the art which have hitherto been accessible to us. At this period we know of the existence of an archaic religious language preserved by a privileged caste in memorials, which are surrounded by a traditional reverence, and which, though it has never been written, has still been the object of a certain amount of culture. **The Brâhmanas**, the exclusive depositaries, through the oral tradition, of a religious literature on which their authority was founded, have always shewn themselves little disposed to deprive themselves, by writing, of their monopoly. At that time their disposition must have been the same. On the other hand, it is natural that the habitual study of the Vedic texts and the continuance of their religious avocations should have led them to preserve, or, in a measure, to evolve for their personal use an idiom akin to that of their traditions, and very superior, in its general aspect of preservation, to the contemporary dialects of the common people. **The Buddhists** must, on the contrary, have been anxious to avail themselves of the art of writing to spread abroad their doctrines. The monuments of **Piyadasi** bear witness to this, and the vulgar tongues were the necessary instrument of this propaganda.

When people set themselves to the task of fixing, by writing, the current tongue, the religious language, and the experience gained in the efforts devoted to assuring its integrity, cannot fail to have exercised a certain amount of influence. This is exactly what we find in the orthography of the edicts. This influence continued, and gained increased power with time, and explains the continual progress with which, from **Kapur di Giri** to **Suē Vihar**, and from **Suē Vihar** to **Mathurā**, the popular orthography comes nearer and nearer to learned accuracy. At the same time, the practice of writing exercised upon the culture of the religious language a reaction which was none the less certain because it was indirect. People might refuse to write it, but it was impossible that the use of the alphabet should not have acted as a stimulus towards phonetic and grammatical studies. **The attempts to fix the orthography of the vulgar tongue must have suggested and urged on the definitive fixation of the more learned language**, the idea and general prototype of which must have long been dormant in the **Brâhmanical** schools. **The labour devoted to this must, in its turn, have extended its influence to the vulgar orthography.** **The Buddhists, as we know, were recruited from the Brâhmanical, as well as from the other castes, and they were, to a certain degree, initiated into its learning.** This explains how their orthography, in **Mixed Sanskrit**, continually tended to approach nearer and nearer that of correct Sanskrit. It followed it from afar, if not step by step, at least in its general direction. It was, without doubt, in this manner the **Buddhists** who unconsciously determined, partly the final constitution, and certainly the diffusion of Sanskrit. It was they who, little by little, introduced into wider circulation the habits of an orthography which was inspired by the labours and practice of the schoolmen. They followed on that track, though, it is true, with imperfections and shortcomings. By this slow and instinctive revelation, the secrets of the learned so to say, became public. **All that remained for the Brâhmanas to do was to recover their vantage ground on the strength of their superior technical knowledge, to take the initiative again by teaching their learned language in its correctness, and to develop its public use, both official and literary.** It was thus that the diffusion of Sanskrit

found itself secured. It suppressed the use of Mixed Sanskrit, after having, nevertheless, been one of its principal factors. Before, however, the latter disappeared from current use and from the monuments, it had already secured a future course for itself as a literary language. The very aspect of the Buddhist dialect "of the Gāthās," so nearly does it approach Classical Sanskrit, proves that it was first settled at a period close to the definitive domination of the latter. In this respect, the tradition which places the arrangement of the Canon of the Northern Buddhists in the time of Kanishka, agrees very well with the conclusions to which we have been led by epigraphy. Not, indeed, that we are to assume that all the works or fragments written in Mixed Sanskrit are necessarily so ancient as that; but that the fixing of this system of orthography and the application to literary use which assured it its survival, must be referred to that epoch, which marks, together with the diffusion of classical Sanskrit into general use, the hour in which Mixed Sanskrit, when on the eve of being absorbed into it, borrowed from it the largest proportion of learned elements.

We thus see how, under the common, but on the one hand direct and on the other indirect, influence of an ancient religious language, there was produced in parallel lines, and not without reciprocal reactions, the two-fold development of Classical and of Mixed Sanskrit. Their final fusion, to the benefit of the classical language marks the hour of its definitive establishment,—of the commencement of an undisputed supremacy which yet endures.

Thus is explained the apparently paradoxical formula within which we found ourselves shut up. The endless chain is broken. Mixed Sanskrit is, to speak exactly, neither a copy nor the source of regular Sanskrit, but is something of both. Classical Sanskrit, without enjoying a public and consecrated existence at the time when the early form of Mixed Sanskrit makes its appearance, nevertheless did exist in the close circle of the schools, in a stage of formation more or less advanced. It will be understood how the Vedic language could, without being written, exercise a profound action, and how the Brāhmins, in spite of their distaste for writing, were led to fix and to put into circulation that great instrument of literary production in India, Sanskrit. This profane language did not compromise the privilege belonging to their religious language, of which they still remained the jealous guardians.

MISCELLANEA.

NOTES ON THE TRADITIONAL AND MYTHICAL MEN AND BEASTS OF THE MALAGASY.

From the general appearance of the Malagasy, especially of the leading Hova tribe, and from their language, we can easily see that they are of Malay extraction. Their numerals, for instance, up to ten are identical; and it is a curious fact, that in the Malagasy language we find words from almost all of the many different dialects spoken in the Malay islands of the Archipelago. However, in their customs, folklore and religion the Malagasy have, I believe, but little in common with the Malays. I have never heard of any tradition among the natives of Madagascar as to their arrival in the island, and they are entirely unconscious of any relationship to the Malays.¹

There is, however, a tradition of the arrival of

the Hova tribe in the Province of Imerina, in which are the Highlands they now occupy. These people say that their forefathers came from somewhere unknown, and drove out a race of men called the Vazimba, which, they say, is now extinct, but was a diminutive race, with the head small in proportion to the body. The phrase *Vazimba loha* (Vazimba-headed) is still occasionally used to express anything, such as a nail, that has an unusually small head. But whether the tribe in question is extinct is a matter of doubt. A friend, when exploring an unknown part of western Madagascar, came across people of a distinctly negro type calling themselves Vazimbaz, and having, as aborigines, an hereditary right over the river traffic, albeit in subjection to the Betsiriry tribe of the Sakalavas. They had not, however, as far as he noticed, anything peculiar in the formation of the cranium. I may add, while speak-

¹ They are not in any way a seafaring people, except the Sakalava tribe on the west coast, and this tribe is very much more akin to the Negro type than the Malay.

² Stanley, I think, mentions a tribe called Wazimba in Central Africa. Some derive the name from the Swahili word *vazimu*, an ogre or madman, others from *kuumu*, in the grave.

ing of the Betsiviry, that the same explorer saw one individual of a tribe of aboriginal dwarfs, who live in caves and are very shy, and speak a distinct language of their own; whereas all the other tribes in every part of Madagascar speak dialects of Malagasy.

The Hovas greatly venerate the graves of the Vazimbias, and imagine that the spirits of these people, whom their fathers drove out, exert great power over the living. There are many such graves close to the Capital, to which offerings are constantly taken, and it is considered a heinous sin to desecrate, in any way, the places in which these spirits are supposed to dwell. The consequences can only be averted by superstitious rites entailing considerable trouble. The dwelling place of a spirit seems to be more or less arbitrarily chosen: sometimes it is an old tomb, sometimes it is a running brook, or a marsh in which the *baratratra* reed (*Phragmites communis*, Trin.) grows, sometimes it is a whole mountain on which it is wicked even to burn the grass in the manner customary with the Hovas. Consequently the touchy spirits are often unwittingly offended by some unfortunate stranger. Then again each, or almost each, spirit has his particular likings and aversions. Some like mutton, others cannot endure tobacco and onions; while all dislike pork. To make a wrong offering is quite enough to bring disease, if not death, to the offender. Great is the dread among the people of these spirits, and I remember a few young sceptics offering tobacco out of sheer bravado, to a spirit who disliked it, and so overwhelming was the fear of one of them, after he had committed the offence and the excitement had worn off, that he actually frightened himself into a serious illness.

I must now pass on to a description of some of the mythical animals. First and most renowned is the *Songomby*. This word is used figuratively by the natives to mean lion-hearted, showing the courage they suppose the animal to possess. It is said to be an animal somewhat resembling a horse, but with large, hanging ears, and a heavy mane: so large, in fact, are the ears that when the animal is running down hill they fall over its eyes and blind it. Hence the natives will tell you that in case you are pursued by a *songomby* your only chance is to run down hill! It is a most ferocious animal, having a predilection for young children, and hence many a poor little child is threatened with this awful beast, if it oversteps the patience of its parents. It is said to live in caves, but to be so wary that it is seldom seen and never captured. When horses were first introduced the natives thought them to be a kind of *songomby* caught by the white men; and when

riding in outlying districts, where a horse had never been seen, I have often put a whole village to rout, for the sudden appearance of a white man, (never perhaps seen before,) riding a *songomby* was enough to strike terror into the boldest. I remember quite well one poor woman stealing back after a general stampede caused by myself to save her child, when my men stopped her and quieted her fears. After confidence was restored she confessed to having thought we should want a baby or two to feed the horse with. It often took one hour or more to gain the people's confidence.

Next to the *songomby* is the *Fananim-pitolo*, the Hydra with seven heads. This is not an awe-inspiring reptile, as one might easily imagine; far from it, it is respected and venerated. It has its origin in man, and the spirit of the person from whom it springs is embodied in it. As a rule it springs from the entrails of the dead. Among the Betsileo tribe living to the South of the Hova Province of Imerina, it is said to be a common custom to take a portion of the entrails of a dead relation and place them near a running stream or pond, in order that a *fananim* may be generated and an embodiment of the spirit effected. If such should happen the hydra proceeds to the village, and those of the inhabitants, who have lost a relative, ask it who it is, by repeating the names of the departed. Should the *fananim* wave its head sideways it is not the person named, but should it nod, there is a great rejoicing among the relations of the person named, and offerings are given daily to it. The appearance of the *fananim* is variously described, but the most authentic accounts state it to be striped, and of a dull brown colour, with seven heads. When it has reached maturity horns grow on each head.

There are many curious fables about this hydra. Here is one. Once upon a time one attacked a bull, but the seven horns being broken, for it butted and did not bite as one might suppose, it was despatched by the bull. This took place near a village, and next day the *fananim* had swollen to such an extent, that it was like a mountain overshadowing the houses, so that the inhabitants had to flee the place during its putrefaction. Sometimes we are told they grow so large that they can span a mountain at its base, but as soon as the tail overlaps their heads they bite off the extra piece, and, fixing the stump firmly in the earth, rear themselves up on it and shoot into heaven!

I am assured that the reason so few are seen with seven heads at the present day is that they are all young, and that it takes many years before they gain their full complement.

Another mythical animal is the *tokan-dia*,² the single step. This is a large white animal with one leg in the middle of its body and one in its chest, and although only gifted with these two legs, it travels at the most extraordinary speed. It eats men, and is, but seldom, if ever, seen now!

Then there is the most uncanny of all the fabulous beings, the *kinoly*. It is a supposed resurrection of the body after partial decomposition. Should a tomb — the natives always bury in large vaults in Imerina and Betsileo — be opened as soon as the bowels and skin of a corpse have become putrid, the corpse is said to

run away. Its eyes become red like fire, and its nails long as talons. It loses all likeness to the living, except its human form. It is harmless from want of strength, only prowling about and stealing such food as it can lay its hands on. This is a Betsileo superstition, and it is said that some people leave their tombs open, so as to allow their relatives the chance of becoming *kinolies*.

Such are the chief myths among the natives of Madagascar. I have heard also of a few others of unicorns and mermen, whose distinctive feature is, curiously, their long hair, and of a hairy tribe of dwarfs that live in trees.

C. P. CORY.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

SUPERSTITIONS IN MADRAS.

It is a superstitious belief in Southern India that we should not eat at evening twilight, as it is said that the Asuras of the infernal regions wander over this world at that time, and when food is served they will come in and partake of it, leaving for us mortals only the remainder of what they have eaten.

If a person dies in the house on an unpropitious day, the house is shut up for six months continuously. After the expiration of this period, the usual ceremonies for cleansing the house must be performed, and then it becomes habitable.

Don't shave during July, August, (*Adi*); September, October, (*Purattasi*); December, January (*Margashir*); February, March (*Masi*); Sunday, Tuesday or Saturday.

If you anoint your body with oil or bathe in hot water on Sunday you will get heart disease, on Monday health, on Tuesday death, on Wednesday gain, on Thursday loss of a child, on Friday loss of money, on Saturday increase of age.

K. SEIKANTALIYAR.

Ootacamund.

EUPHEMISMS IN BENGAL.

In colloquial Bengali euphemisms are common with a view to avoiding the use of expressions of unpleasant import. Such eu-

phemisms have generally arisen from an undercurrent of superstition that it is unlucky to use unpleasant expressions, a belief which has universally prevailed at all times. *E.g.*, the expression '*asi*' on taking leave means 'let me go,' and is never understood in its real sense of 'let me come.' The reply is invariably '*esi*,' or politely '*asthi*' which means 'you may go,' while their real sense is 'you may come.'

GAURDAS BYSACK.

Calcutta.

ORIGIN OF ALOMPRA.

The story that Alompra (*Alaungp'aya*) was a hunter, as stated by most European historians of Burma³ is a pure myth. He belonged to a respectable well-to-do family, and to a class, which would be called the landed gentry in England.

The very fact of his being able, in a short time, to rally round himself a large following, and of his possessing the respect and confidence of his adherents, proves the unsubstantial basis of the story. For in Burma, from time immemorial, the hunter and the fisherman has always been looked down on, and treated as an outcast, beyond the pale of refined society. Had Alompra been a hunter⁴ his assumption of leadership would not have been tolerated by his followers.

TAW SEIN KO.

² I have often wondered if this is the last tradition of the huge extinct bird of Madagascar, *epyornis maximus*.

³ See Phayre, *Hist. of Burma*, p. 150 ff.

⁴ [Phayre, *History of Burma*, loc. cit., says in effect that Alompra was originally a "hunter captain," who, on succeeding against the Talangs, claimed royal des-

cent. There were many instances of sham 'princes' amongst dacoit leaders (*bés*) from 1835 to 1890 against the English. One was whilom a schoolmaster of the Educational Department in Lower Burma. There is in fact much to be said both for Phayre's view and for Taw Sein Ko's. No doubt future search will settle the point.—ED.]

THE MUNGIR COPPER-PLATE GRANT OF DEVAPALADEVA.

BY PROFESSOR F. KIELHORN, C.I.E.; GÖTTINGEN.

THE plate containing this inscription — so far as I know, the first Sanskrit inscription that was ever brought to the notice of European scholars — was found about 1780 by Colonel Watson¹ at Mungir, the chief town of the Mungir District of the Bengal Province, on the south bank of the Ganges. The inscription was translated by Charles Wilkins in 1781, and his translation was published, with a few notes by Sir W. Jones and a lithographed facsimile² (but without a transcript) of the original text, in 1788, in the *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. I. pp. 123-130 and 142. The plate having been lost, I now venture to edit the inscription from the published lithograph, which, with all its defects, is by no means so valueless as may appear to be the case, at first sight.

The plate was a single one. Judging from the lithograph, it was surmounted by an ornament, fixed on the upper part, and advanced some distance on the plate so as to occasion a break in the upper lines. As in the case e.g. of the Dinājpur plate of Mahīpālādēva, this ornament in all probability contained a seal, across which were engraved the words *śrī-Devapālādēvasya* which in the lithograph are put at the top. The plate itself contained 52 lines of writing, 36 of which were on the front and 16 on the back of the plate. The writing was well preserved throughout. The characters clearly were of the same type as those of the Budāl pillar inscription and of the Dinājpur plate. Thus, to mention a characteristic feature of this alphabet, there can be no doubt that the letter *r*, preceding another consonant, was ordinarily denoted by a short line, sideways attached to the right side of the *akṣhara* of which *r* forms part. By the lithographer this short line has been altogether overlooked, and accordingly the letter *r* is omitted in the lithograph about twenty-five times. Similarly, the peculiar way in which medial *ā*, *ē*, *ai*, *ō* and *au* were written in the original plate, has often caused the engraver of the lithograph to omit the signs for the medial *ā* and *ē*, and to put *ā*, *ē* and *ō* in the place of *ō*, *ai* and *au*. The sign of the *avagraha* was exceptionally employed in the original in *mārtiā* & *thavā*, in line 16, and *ś kīñchitpragrākyō*, in line 40. The language is Sanskrit. Excepting the introductory *ōm svasti*, the inscription is in verse down to the commencement of line 24. Lines 24-46, containing the formal part of the grant, are in prose; they are followed, in lines 46-50, by four of the customary benedictive and imprecatory verses; and the inscription closes with another verse, in lines 50-52, which gives the name of the *dātaka* of this grant. The inscription was written and engraved with great care, and in regard to orthography I need only state here that *ḍ* throughout is denoted by the sign for *v*, and that instead of *anusvāra* the guttural nasal has been employed in the word [*va**]śśa, in line 50.

In writing out my text, I have not considered it necessary to record all the very numerous minor errors and omissions of the lithograph.³ The only passages about which I am at all doubtful, and in which the rediscovery of the plate may prove me to have gone wrong, are the words *svatīyāyīnām*, in line 5, *rājakulīya-samasta-*, in line 40, and *kara-hirany-*, in line 45. For the rest, my text will, I trust, speak for itself.

The inscription is one of the devout worshipper of Sugata, or Buddha, the *Paramēśvara*, *Paramabhaṭṭāraka* and *Mahārājādhirāja*, the illustrious *Dēvapālādēva*, who meditated on the feet of the devout worshipper of Sugata, the *Paramēśvara*, *Paramabhaṭṭāraka* and *Mahārājādhi-*

¹ See *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. I. p. 132.

² The statement of the late Dr. Rājendralāl Mitra (*Indo-Aryans*, Vol. II. p. 219), that the translation was published without any facsimile, is of course incorrect.

³ In the lithograph it is often quite impossible to distinguish between *p*, *m*, and *y*, or even *s*. *D* is engraved instead of *n*, or *m*, or *y*, or *v*; *ā* instead of *s*; *nā* instead of *nt*, or *nāh*, or *nn*; *bh* instead of *s*; *yy* instead of *chy*, or *dy*, or *sy*; *v* instead of *ch*, or *n*, or *r*, or *rth*. The signs of the original for *lsh* and *ḍ* are drawn quite wrongly. And the signs of *anusvāra* and *visarga*, and those of the subscript *u*, *ī*, and *r*, are often omitted. But it is one great advantage that the lithograph was prepared by an artist who did not understand the language of the original.

rāja, the illustrious Dharmapālādēva (lines 28-29). After the words *ōṃ svasti* and a verse in honour of both Buddha and the ruling king, it gives (in lines 4-24), in thirteen verses of which a full translation will be given below, the genealogy of Dēvapālādēva. All we learn from this part of the inscription is, that Dēvapāla was the son and successor of the king Dharmapāla and his wife Rannādēvi, who was a daughter of the illustrious Parabala of the Rāshṭrakūṭa family; and that Dharmapāla again was the son and successor of the king Gōpāla. Dēvapāla, as well as his father and grandfather, are eulogized as very powerful monarchs, who each of them are represented as having conquered almost the whole of India. I have already had occasion to state⁴ that in later inscriptions of the same dynasty Dēvapāla is described as the brother's son of Dharmapāla, and that I would identify his father-in-law Parabala with the Rāshṭrakūṭa Gōvinda III, also called Śrīvallabha (or Śrīballaha), etc.; but I must add here that my chief reason for proposing this identification is the circumstance that we know Gōvinda III to have ruled at the beginning of the 9th century A. D., and that this would be about the time when Dharmapāla's father Gōpāla may be supposed to have lived.

The wording of the formal part of the grant (lines 24-46) is much the same as in the three other known copper-plate grants of the so-called Pāla kings. As regards the object of the grant, Dēvapālādēva, from his camp at Mudgagiri on the Ganges, informs his officials and the people concerned that he has given the village of Mēshika, which was in the Krimilā *vishaya* of the Śrinagara *bhukti*, to the *bhaṭṭa* Vihēkarātamiśra, a son of the *bhaṭṭa* Śrivarāharāta and son's son of the *bhaṭṭa* Viśvarāta, of the Aupamanyava *gōtra* and Āśvalāyana *śākhā*; and he orders the people to make over to the donee whatever may be due to him in accordance with this donation. Among the numerous officials, enumerated in this part of the grant, two occur who are not mentioned in the other Pāla grants, the *pramātri* and *sarabhaṅga* (in line 32). I am unable to explain these terms, and can only state that the same officials are mentioned, under the names of *pramātdra* (or perhaps *mahādrājapramātdra*) and *śarabhaṅga*, in line 11 of the Pāṇḍukēśvar grant of Lalitāśūradēva, published in the *Proceedings, Bengal As. Soc.*, 1877, p. 73; and that we find *pramātri* in *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I. p. 88, l. 49, p. 115, l. 32; *pramātdra*, *ib.* p. 72, l. 9; and *mahāpramātdra*, *ib.* p. 73, l. 17.

The formal part of the grant closes (in line 46) with the date, the 21st day of the month Mārgaśira of the year 33. Lines 46-50 contain, as already stated, four of the usual benedictive and imprecatory verses. And these are followed (in lines 50-52) by another verse which will be translated below, according to which the king had appointed, as *dūtaka* of this grant, his own son, the *Yuvarāja*, the illustrious Rājyapāla. The year 33 of the date must of course be referred to the king's reign, which I agree with Sir A. Cunningham in assigning to about the end of the 9th century A. D.

Of the localities mentioned in this inscription Mudgagiri and Śrinagara have already by Sir Charles Wilkins been identified with the modern Mungir and Patnā respectively. The Krimilā *vishaya* and the village of Mēshika I am unable to identify.

TEXT.⁵

First Side.

- 1 Ōm⁶ svasti † Siddhārthasya⁷ parā[rtha]-susthira-
- 2 matēḥ sanmārgam=abhyasyatas=siddhis=siddhim=a-
- 3 nuttarām=bhagavatatas=tasya prajāsu kriyāt † yas=traidhātuka-sat[t*]va-siddhi-pada-vir-
atyugra-viry-ōdayāj=jitvā nirvṛiti-
- 4 m=āsasāda sugataḥ sarvvārtha-bhūmiśvaraḥ † Saubhāgyan⁸=dadhad=atulaṁ śriyas=
sapatnyā Gōpālāḥ patir=abhavad=vasu-

⁴ See above, p. 99.

⁵ From the lithograph in *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. I. p. 128.

⁶ Expressed by a symbol.

⁷ Metre, Śārdūlavikṛīḍita.

⁸ Metre, Praharshīṇi.

- 5 ndharâyâh | drishâtântê [suvinayinâm]⁹ surâjñi yasmiñ=śraddhêyâh Prithu-Sagar-
â[dayô]=py=abhûvan || Vijitya¹⁰ yên=â jaladhêr=vasundha-
6 râm vimôchitâ mōgha-parigrahâ iti | savâshpam=udvâshpa-vilôchanân=punar=
vvanêshu va(ba)ndhûn=dadrî[su]r=mmataṅgajâh || Cha.¹¹
7 latsv=anantêshu va(ba)lêshu yasya viśvambharâyâ nichitam rajôbbhiḥ | pāda-
prachâra-kshamam=antariksham¹²=vihaṅgamânâm suchiram=va(ba)bhûva ||
8 'Sâstrârtha'¹³-bhâjâ chalatô=nuśâsya¹⁴ varṇân=pratishtâpayatâ sva-dharmmê | śrî-
Dharmmapālêna sûtêna sô=bhût=svarga-sthitânâm=anṛiṇaḥ
9 pitṛiṇâm || Achalair¹⁵=iva jaṅgamair=yadyair=vichaladbhir=dviradaiḥ kadarthyamânâ |
nirupaplavam=amva(mba)ram prapêdê śa-
10 raṇam rēṇu-nibhêna bhûta-dhâtṛi || Kêdârê¹⁶ vidhin=ôpayukta-payasâm Gaṅgâ-
samêt-âmvu(mbu)dhaû Gôkarṇ-âdishu ch=âpy=anu-
11 shthitavatâm tîrthêshu dharmmyâh kriyâh | bhṛityânâm sukham=êva yasya
sakalân=uddhṛitya dushṭân=imân¹⁷ lōkân=sâ-
12 dhayatô=nushaṅga-janitâ siddhiḥ paratr=apy=abhût || Tair=tair=digvijay-âvasâna-
samayê samprêshitânâm=paraiḥ sa-
13 tkârair=apaniya khêdam=akhilam svâm svân=gatânâm bhuvam | krityam=
bhâvayatâm yadyam=uchitam prityâ nṛipânâm=abhût=sô-
14 tkaṇṭham hridayam divas=chyutavatâm jâtismarâṇâm=iva || Śrî¹⁸-Parava(ba)lasya
duhituḥ kshitipatinâ Rashtrakûṭa-tilakasya |
15 Bannâdêvyâh pâpir=jagrihê grihamêdhinâ tēna || Dhṛita-tanur¹⁹=iyam Lakshmîḥ
sâkshât=kshitiṛ=nu sâtrîṇi kim=avani-patêḥ
16 kîrttir=mûrttâ sthavâ grihadêvatâ | iti vidadhatî śuchy-âchârâ vitarkavatîḥ
prajā[h]²⁰ prakṛiti-gurubhir=yâ śuddhântam guṇai-
17 r=akarôd=adhaḥ || 'Slâghyâ'²¹ pativrat=âsau muktâ-ratnam samudra-sûktir=iva |
śrî-Dêvapalâdêvam prasanna-vaktram sutam=asûta ||
18 Nirmalô²² manasi vâchi samyataḥ kâya-karmmaṇi cha yaḥ sthitaḥ śuchau |
râjyam=âpa nirupaplavam pitur=vô(bô)dhisat[t*]va iva
19 saugataṁ padam || Bhrâmyadbhir²³=vijaya-kramêṇa karibhi[h] svâ²⁴=êva Vindhy-
âtavim=uddâma-plavamâna-vâshpa-payasô drishṭâḥ punar=vâ(bâ)ndha-
20 vâh | Kamvô(mbô)jêshu cha yasya vâji-yuvabhir=dhvast-ânyarâj-aujasô hêshâ-misrita-
hâri-hêshita-ravâḥ kântâs=chiram vikshitâḥ ||
21 Yaḥ pûrvvam=Va(ba)linâ krîtaḥ krîta-yugê yên=âgamad=Bhârgavas=trêtâyâm pra-
hataḥ priya-praṇayinâ Karṇêṇa yô dvâparê | vichchhinnaḥ kali-
22 nâ 'Sakadvishi gatê kâlêna lōkântaram yēna tyâga-pathaḥ sa êva hi punar=
vispashṭam=unmilitaḥ || Â²⁵ Gaṅg-âgama-mahitâ-
23 t=sapatna-sûnyâm=â sê[tôḥ]²⁶ prathita-Deśāsya-kêtu-kîrttêḥ | urvîm=â Varuṇa-nikê-
[ta]nâch=²⁷cha sindhôr=â Lakshmi-kulabhavanâch=cha yô
24 vu(bu)bhôja || Sa khalu Bhâgîrathî-patha-pravarttamâna-nânâvidha-nauvâṭaka-sampâ-
dita-sêtuva(ba)ndha-[ni]hita-sâila-sikhara-śrê-
25 ṇi-vibhramân = niratîsaya - ghana - ghanâghana - ghaṭṭâ(tâ) - śyâmâyamâna - vâsaralakshmi -
samâravdha(bdha)-santata-jaladasamaya-sa-

⁹ What the lithograph actually has, is *sadinatinâm*; but the second *akshara*, *di*, is very oddly shaped. The English translation has 'by comparison of the learned.'

¹⁰ Metre, Varṇasastha.

¹¹ Metre, Upajâti.

¹² Read 'ksham'.

¹³ Metre, Indravajrâ.

¹⁴ The lithograph apparently has 'syê'.

¹⁵ Metre, Apachohandasika.

¹⁶ Metre, Śârdûlavikrîṭita; and of the next verse.

¹⁷ Read *imân*.

¹⁸ Metre, Âryâ.

¹⁹ Metre, Hariṇi.

²⁰ The lithograph omits the *visarga*.

²¹ Metre, Âryâ.

²² Metre, Rathôddhatâ.

²³ Metre, Śârdûlavikrîṭita; and of the next verse.

²⁴ In the lithograph there is no *visarga*, and the syllable, here read *svâ*, looks rather like *prâ* or *mrâ*.

²⁵ Metre, Rathôddhatâ.

²⁶ The lithograph apparently has *sêtu* (or *bhêtu*).

²⁷ The lithograph has *nikêṇâchcha* (or *vikêṇâchcha*).

- 26 ndêhât ¹²⁸ ndichîn-ânêka-narapati-prâbhṛitkṛit-âpramêya-haya-vâhini-khara-khur-ôtkhâta-
dhûli-dhûsarita-di-
- 27 gantarâlât ¹²⁹ paramêśvara-sêvâ-samâyât-âśêsha-Jamvu(mbu)dvîpa-bhûpâla-pâdâta-bhara-
namad-avanêh ¹³⁰ śrî-Mudgagiri-samâvâ-
- 28 sita-śrîmaj-jayaskandhâvârât paramasaugata-paramêśvara-paramabhāṭṭâraka-mahârâjâ-
dhirâja-śrî-Dharmapâladêva-
- 29 pâdânudhyâtaḥ paramasaugataḥ paramêśvara[h] ³¹ paramabhāṭṭârakô mahârâjâdhi-
râjaḥ śrîmân=Dêvapâladêva[h] ³¹ kuśali
- 30 Srinagara-bhuktau Krimilâvishay-ântaḥpâti-svasamva(mba)ddhâvichchhinna-talôpêta-
Mêshikâgrâmê samupagatâ-
- 31 n sarvvân=êva râṇaka-1 râjaputra-1 amâtya-1 mahâkârttâkṛitika-1 mahâdaṇḍanâyaka-1
mahâpratîhâra-1 mahâśâ-
- 32 manta-1 mahâdaupśâdhasâdhanika-1 mahâkumârâmatya-1 pramâtri-1 sarabhaṅga-1
râjasthânîya-1 uparika-1 dâśâ-
- 33 parâdhika-1 chaurôddharanika-1 dâṇḍika-1 dâṇḍapâśika-1 śaulkika-1 gaulmika-1
[kshê]trapa-1 prântapâla-1 kôṭṭapâla-[1]
- 34 khaṇḍara[ksha]-1 tadâyuktaka-1 viniyuktaka-1 hasty-aśv-ôshṭra-va(ba)la-vyâpṛitaka-[1]
kiśôra-va[ḍa]vâ-gô-mahishy-aj-âvik-âdhyaksha-1 dûtapraishapi-
- 35 ka-1 gamâgamika-1 abhitvaramâṇa-1 vishayapati-1 tarapati-1 tarika-1 Gauḍa-Mâlava-
Khaśa-Hûṇa-Kulika-Karṇâṭa-Lâ[ta-châ]ṭa-bhaṭa-
- 36 sêvak-âdîn anyâms=ch=âkṛittitân sva-pâdapadm-ôpajîvinah prativâsinas=cha vrâ(brâ)hmaṇ-
ôttarân mahattara-kuṭumvi(mbi)-purôga-mêd-â-

Second Side.

- 37 ndhraka³²-chaṇḍâla-paryantân [sa]mâjñâpayati [1*] Veditam=a-
- 38 stu bhavatâm yath=ôparilikhita-Mêshikâgrâmah sva-si-
- 39 mâ-trîṇa-yûti-gôchâra-paryantah satalah sôddêśah sâmrâmadhûkaḥ sajalasthalah
samatsyah satṛiṇah sôparikarah sadaśâ-
- 40 parâdhaḥ sachaurôddharanah parihṛita-sarvvapîḍah ¹³³ achâṭabhaṭa-pravêśô ski-
ñchitpragrâhyô râjakulîya-[samasta]-³⁴pratyâya-samê-
- 41 tô bhûmichchhidra-nyâyên=â-chandr-ârka-kshiti-samakâlâḥ pûrva-datta-bhukta-bhujya-
mâna-dêva-vra(bra)hma-dêya-varjitô mayâ mâtâ-pitrôrâtmanas=cha pu-
- 42 nya-yaśô-bhividdhayê vêdârtha-vidô yajvanô bhaṭṭa-Viśvarâtasya putrâya vidy-
âvadâta-chêtasô bhaṭṭa-Śrîvarâharâtasya putrâya ¹³⁵
- 43 pada-vâkya-pramâṇa-vidyâ-pâram gatâya ¹³⁶ Apamanyava-sagôtrâya ¹³⁷ Âślâyana-
savra(bra)hmachârîṇê bhaṭṭa-pravara-Vi[hê]karâta-miśrâya
- 44 śâsanikṛitya pratipâditah [1*] Yatô bhavadbhîḥ sarvvair=êva bhûmêr=dâna-phala-
gauravâd=apaharanê mahânaraka-pâta-bhayâch=cha dânam=i-
- 45 dam=anumôdya pâlanîyam prativâsibhiḥ kshêtrakarais=ch=âjñâ-śravaṇa-vidhêyair=
bhûtvâ samu[chi]ta³⁸-[kara-hiraṇy] ³⁹âdêy-âdi-sarvva-pratyây-ôpana-
- 46 yah kârya iti [1*] Samvat⁴⁰ 33 Mârga-dinê 21 Tathâ cha dharmânusâsana⁴¹-
ślôkâḥ | Sarvân⁴²=êtân bhâvinah pârthivêndrân

²⁸ Read "hâd=udl."

³⁰ This sign of punctuation is superfluous.

³² The published text of the Bhâgalpur plate of Nârâyanapâla has *mêdânâh*; but the original plate has *mêdânâhra*.

³³ Read "piḍô=châṭa."

³⁴ I am doubtful about this word. What the lithograph has may possibly be intended for *paryanta*.

³⁵ This sign of punctuation is superfluous.

³⁶ Read *gatây=Aupa*."

³⁷ Read "irâya-Âślâyana-."

³⁸ The lithograph actually has *samuchata*.

³⁹ The words in these brackets are, I believe, certain; but the lithograph gives *lamakaraṇ*."

⁴⁰ Read *samvat*.

⁴¹ Probably, the reading intended was "śâsinaḥ. The lithograph actually has "śâsana.

⁴² Metre, Śâlini.

- 47 bhūyô bhūyaḥ prārthayaty=ēsha Rāmaḥ | sāmānyô=yaṁ dharma-sêtur=nṛipāṇām⁴³
 kâlê kâlê pālaniyaḥ kramēnaḥ⁴⁴ || Va(ka)hubhir⁴⁵=vasudhâ
 48 dattâ rājabbih Sagar-ādibbih [1*] yasya yasya yadâ bhūmih⁴⁶ tasya tasya tadâ
 phalaṁ || Sva-dattām=para-dattām=vâ⁴⁷ yô harêta vasu-
 49 ndharām [1*] sa viśthâyām kṛimir=bhūtvâ pitribhis=saha pāchyata⁴⁸ [11*] Iti⁴⁹
 kamala-dal-āmvy(mbu)-vindu-lôlām⁵⁰ śriyam=annuchintya manushya-
 50 jivitañ=cha | sakalam=idam=udāhritañ=cha vu(bu)ddhvâ na hi purushaiḥ para-
 kirttayô vilôpyâ[h]⁵¹ || Śrēyô-vidhâ⁵²=ubhaya-[va*]śā⁵³-vi-
 51 śuddhi-bhājam rāj=ākarôd=adhigat-ātma-guṇam guṇa-jñāḥ | ātm-ānurtāpa-charitaṁ sthira-
 yauvarājyaṁ śrī-Rājyapālam=i-
 52 ha dūtakam=ātma-putraṁ ||

TRANSLATION OF LINES 1—24 AND 50—52.

Om! May it be well!

May the perfection of that venerable being, whose objects are accomplished, whose mind is steadfast in the cause of others, and who is ever treading the path of virtue, procure for his people unsurpassed perfection, — that being who, a Sugata⁵⁴ and in all things a lord of the earth, having excelled the ways of perfection of the creatures of the three worlds by the display of his awful might, has attained unto bliss!

(Line 4.) Possessed of matchless prosperity, Gôpāla was the husband of Fortune as well as the lord of the earth.⁵⁵ While he, the type of a well-conducted (*king*), carried on his beneficent rule, even (*kings*) like Pṛithu and Sagara came to be believed in.

When he had conquered the earth as far as the sea, he set free his elephants, regarding them a useless train; and they with tears (*of joy*) saw again in the forests their kindred whose eyes became filled with tears.

When his innumerable forces were marching, the sky continually was so filled with the dust of the earth that the birds of the air could walk upon it.

(L. 8.) He paid his debt to his forefathers in heaven by begetting the illustrious Dharma-pāla, who, conversant with the precepts of the Śāstras, by restraining those who swerved from the right course, made the castes conform to their proper tenets.

By the elephants of this prince, who were moving about like walking mountains, the earth was so tormented that, in the guise of the dust, it took refuge in the peaceful heavens.

With ease uprooting all the wicked and subduing this world, he at the same time secured for his followers the blessings of the world to come; for (*on his expeditions*) they bathed according to precept at Kêdāra (*and*)⁵⁶ where the ocean is joined by the Ganges, and performed holy rites at Gôkarṇa and other sacred shrines.

When he had completed the conquest of the regions, he released the princes (*whom he had made captive*); and they, made to forget all their distress by the various great honours shown to them, and having each returned to his own country, pondered upon his generous deeds, and

⁴³ Read *nṛipāṇām*.⁴⁴ Read *kramēna*.⁴⁵ Metre, Ślôka (Anushtubh); and of the next verse.⁴⁶ Read *bhūmis-tasya*.⁴⁷ Read -dattām vâ.⁴⁸ Read *pachyatê*.⁴⁹ Metre, Pushpitāgrâ.⁵⁰ Read -lôlām śriyam.⁵¹ The lithograph omits this *visarga*.⁵² Metre, Vasantatīlakâ.⁵³ Read -vaṁsa-.

⁵⁴ i. e., either a Buddha or, applied to the king, a follower of Buddha, a Buddhist. For, like the verse at the commencement of the Dinājpur, Bhāgalpur, and Āmgāchhi plates, this verse is applicable both to the founder of the Buddhist religion (*Śuddhārtha, Sugata, Sarvārthasiddha*) and to the king, in this case Dêvapālādêva, who issued this grant.

⁵⁵ Literally, 'Gôpāla was a lord of the Earth who was the fellow-wife of the goddess of fortune.'

⁵⁶ It appears necessary to add this particle, because, so far as I know, there is only one Kêdāra, which is situated in the Himalaya mountains. Gôkarṇa is in the North Kanara District of the Bombay Presidency; it is even now a place of pilgrimage frequented by Hindu devotees from all parts of India.

their hearts were fondly longing for him, as of mortals banished from heaven who remember their former existence.

(L. 14.) As a householder, that lord of the earth took the hand of **Rañnadēvi**, the daughter of the illustrious **Parabala**, the ornament of the **Baṣṭrakṛti** family.

By the purity of her conduct causing the people to deliberate as to whether she might be **Lakṣmī** incarnate, or the earth embodied in human form, or the king's fame in visible shape, or his household goddess, she surpassed the ladies of the court by the excellent qualities with which nature had endowed her.

As the shell of the sea yields the precious pearl, so that praise-worthy husband-devoted lady bore a son with a pleasing countenance, the illustrious **Dēvapāladēva**.

(L. 18.) Unsullied in thought, controlling his speech, and steadfast in the performance of blameless actions, he inherited the kingdom of his father free from troubles, as a **Bôdhisattva** attains the status of a **Buddha**.

In the course of conquest his elephants, roaming over their own **Vindhya** forest, met again with their kindred who shed plentiful tears (*of joy*); and, after he had crushed the power of other kings, his young chargers in **Kambôja** at last saw their mates, and it was a pleasure to hear them loudly neigh at each other.

He indeed has again clearly opened that road of liberality which was first made by **Bali** in the **Kṛita** age, on which **Bhrigu**'s descendant walked in the **Trêtâ** age, and which was trodden by **Karna**, devoted to his friends, in the **Dvâpara** age, but which had been choked up by the **Kali** age, ever since the enemy⁵⁷ of the 'Saka went to heaven.

He has ruled the earth, free from rivals, up to the (*mountain*) celebrated for **Gaṅgâ**'s descent, as far as the bridge which proclaims the fame of **Râvaṇa**'s foe, as far as the ocean which is **Varuṇa**'s home, and as far as (*that other ocean which is*) **Lakṣmī**'s birthplace.

* * * * *

(L. 50.) The king, who knows how to appreciate excellent qualities, has made his son, the illustrious **Rajyapāla**, who is of pure descent on both sides, who has acquired the excellent qualities of his parent and whose conduct resembles his, and who is firmly appointed as **Yuva-rāja**, the *dūtaka* for this deed of merit.

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF PIYADASI.

BY E. SENART, MEMBRE DE L'INSTITUT DE FRANCE.

Translated by G. A. Grierson, B.O.S., and revised by the Author.

(*Concluded from page 156.*)

PART III.

MONUMENTAL AND LITERARY PRAKRIT.

In the period which extends from the 2nd century before our era to the 3rd century A. D., all the inscriptions which are not in **Sanskrit** or in **Mixed Sanskrit** are couched in a dialect which may be designated by the name of **Monumental Prākṛit**.

In all the places where it is found it is essentially identical. This does not mean that the monuments present no inconsistencies between themselves. These inconsistencies and irregularities are many, and as they are also instructive, it is worth the trouble of quoting a certain number of them. They are of two kinds. On the one hand, the writing varies for the same words or for identical sounds; and, on the other, forms unequally altered,

⁵⁷ i. e., the great king **Vikramāditya**, the reputed destroyer of the tyrant **Śaka**. See *ante*, Vol. XIX. p. 261.

and, consequently, belonging to different linguistic strata, are found in juxtaposition on the same monuments or on monuments of the same date.

In the first category, the most general fact is the inconsistency with which the dental *n* and the cerebral *ṇ* are employed. Sometimes one or other is introduced indifferently into the same word, or they are even applied in a manner contrary to every known rule; and sometimes one or other is exclusively used. This cannot be a question of dialectic divergencies, for instances occur in contemporary and neighbouring monuments. I quote a few examples¹ Nās. 11 A; *ānapayati* and *ānata*: the same in Nās. 15. C. T. I., p. 38, No. 13: *ṇadiyā*, *yapaṇatha*. Nās. 22: *śēṇāpati*. Kanh. 15: *āṇanḍa*, *āpaṇḍ*. C. T. I., p. 46, No. 14: *udēsēṇa*; p. 55, No. 33: *yavaṇa*, *bhējaṇa*; p. 44, No. 8: *bhātūṇaṇ*, *dāṇa*; p. 42, No. 2: *bēṇa janāna*; p. 30, No. 6: *dhēṇukākata-kēṇa*; p. 6, No. 5: *bhāgiṇēyīya*. Kanh. 28: *bōdhikāna*, *pāṇiya*, *saṅghāṇaṇ*, *dind*. Kanh. 15: *āṇa[n]dēṇa*, *saṅghēṇa*, &c. Nās. 12., Kanh. 10., C. T. I., p. 38, No. 2; p. 18, No. 25, &c., use exclusively *ṇ*: C. T. I., p. 44, No. 9; p. 9, No. 9: Amravatī, No. 175, &c., use exclusively the dental *n*.

Inconsistencies of orthography are manifested in an infinity of other cases. Take the weakening of hard consonants into soft ones: *sugha*, Kārli, 22; Kanh. 15, 28, &c.; *mugha* C. T. I., p. 29, No. 4, No. 6, beside *sukha*, *pamukha* (e. g. Amrav. No. 196); *kuḍumbini*, Kanh. 15, Nās. 8-9, C. T. I., p. 38, No. 2, &c., beside *kuṇumbini* (e. g. Kanh. 4); *dhēṇukākāḍa*, C. T. I., p. 38, No. 2, beside *dhēṇukakāḍa*, C. T. I., p. 24, No. 4; p. 31, No. 7; *thuba*, Kanh. 10 (of the time of Vāsīṭhīputa Pulumāyi), beside *thupa*, C. T. I., p. 24, No. 3; p. 26, No. 1. The inscription of Mādhariputa (C. T. I., p. 60, No. 2) gives *paṭīḥāpita*, while elsewhere, as for example Amr. 8 (pp. 52-53), we find *paṭīḥavita*, and again elsewhere the spellings *paṭīḥāpita* (Kanh. 15), *paṭīḥātavā* (Nās. 7, time of Nahapāna), *paṭīasiya* (Kanh. 4) and *paṭīasitava* (Kanh. 16-18), of the time of Siriyāṇa Sātakaṇi, *paṭīḥāna* (Kanh. 5) in an inscription of earlier date. Of two monuments of Gōtamīputa Sātakaṇi, one (Nās. 11 A) has *Sādakaṇi*, the other *Sātakaṇi*. C. T. I., p. 15, No. 19 has *sādak[ḥ]ra*, while p. 4, No. 1 and p. 9, No. 9, which belong to exactly the same date, have *sādagēri*. Sometimes the alteration is still more complete such as in *gōyaṇmā* equivalent to *gautamā* (°mā), C. T. I., p. 15, No. 160. In several instances the suffix *ka* is changed into *ya*; C. T. I., p. 49, No. 20 presents to us, side by side, *bhārukachhakānaṇ* and *lanḡuḡḡiyānaṇ* for *lanḡuṭikānaṇ*; in Kārli, 22, we read *mahāsāṅghiyānaṇ* in a passage dating from the 24th year of Pulumāyi, and which retains several genitives in *asya*, beside the Prākṛit form in *asa*. It is true that, at about the same period, the Wardak vase presents the intermediate form *mahasāṅghiganaṇ*; and that, at Kanhēri, Nos. 12 and 20 have, at the same epoch, the spellings *Sōpārayaka* and *Sōpāraga* respectively.

As a general rule, it is the soft consonants of Sanskrit which thus disappear or which leave *y* as the only trace behind them: *pāyuna* (Nās. 7, an inscription of the time of Nahapāna) and *pāuna* (C. T. I., p. 47, No. 6) equivalent to *pādōna*; *bhayamta*, C. T. I. p. 18, No. 25; p. 24, No. 4; p. 50, No. 22, &c., or *bhamta*, C. T. I., p. 24, No. 3, beside *bhadanta*; *siaguta*, C. T. I., p. 38, No. 2, beside *sivabhutimhā*, p. 9, No. 9; *pāvayitika*, C. T. I., p. 6, No. 5, or *pavaita*, p. 6, No. 5; p. 37, Nos. 21, 22; Kanh. 21, 28, &c., beside *pavajita*; *bhōja*, C. T. I., p. 14, No. 17; p. 4, No. 1; p. 9, No. 9, beside *bhōya*, in an inscription emanating from the same family (p. 15, No. 19), *bhōa* (p. 2, No. 9), *bhōḡiyā*, (Kanh. 24, earlier than Gōtamīputa Sātakaṇi), and even (*mahā*)*bhuviyā* (C. T. I., p. 100). It is clear that, when *y* is introduced, it is done in a very arbitrary fashion. It is also on several occasions omitted.

In an inscription, No. 21, of Kanhēri, beside *bhayamta*, *thēriya*, &c., we find *pavavikāa pōnakāa saṇāa*, and *chiarika* beside *chivarika* of the preceding numbers which are exactly contemporary. *V* and *y* are here subjected to the same treatment, and we, therefore, need not

¹ I quote in general *Cave Temple Inscriptions* according to number and page in the collection of Messrs. Burgess and Bhagwanlal. For Nāsik, I follow the numbers given in the *Arch. Surv.* IV. 98, &c. For Kanhēri, the numbers of the order in the same collection, V. pp. 74 and ff.

be surprised at sporadic instances of orthography such as *purisadatāva* (Nās. 24), *bhayāva vēlidatāva* and *vyaraka* (C. T. I., p. 17, No. 23), beside the usual *ovaraka*, and the terminations in *āya*. So, also, we find in the inscriptions of the north, side by side, *sahvatsarayē*, *aḥasatutimāē*, *tachhasīlayē*, *puyāē* (Taxila), &c. We find *kaliāṇa* (Kaṇh. 13, 24, &c.) as well as *kaliyāṇa* and *puḷumāi*, *puḷumāyi*, and *puḷumāvi* (Nās. 12, 13, 15); *dhutua*, *mātua* (Kaṇh. 27) beside *dhutuya*, *mātuya*, &c.; *ya* and *ja* are used indifferently the one for the other, when it is necessary to represent an etymological *j*: on the Wardak vase we read *puyāē*, beside *raja*, at Taxila, *raya* beside *puyāē*, and, to confine ourselves to the cave inscriptions, Kaṇh. 18 reads *puyatha[n]*, C. T. I., p. 16, No. 20, *vāṇiyiyasa*, Amr. 26 B, *vāṇiyasa*; while on the other hand, beside the usual *bhayā* (equivalent to *bhāyā*), we have *bhajayā*, Kaṇh. 19, *bharijāyē*, Nās. 11 B.

Inversely, a hard consonant is sometimes substituted for a soft one. For example, *nēkama*, beside *nēgama* (C. T. I., p. 60, No. 2), *nākaṇaka* (Kaṇh. 2), *nākanikā* (Amr. 121), *nākachāṇḍa* (Amr. 56), in the frequently occurring *ma[n]ḍapa*, beside *maṇḍapa* and *maṇḍava*; Kaṇh. 16 reads *bhāka* for *bhāga*; Amr. 222, *lōgāticha* equivalent to *lōkāditya*, and *bhagapatō* for *bhagavatō*.

Although the palatal nasal *ñ* is not unknown, its use is very irregular. Kārli 20 has *anō* equivalent to *anyaḥ*; Kaṇh. 5, *anāni*, Kaṇh. 27, *pūnanñ* equivalent to *puṇyañ* and *nāti* equivalent to *jñāti*. The same spelling *nāti* occurs again at Amravatī, e. g. in Nos. 232, 249, while, on the other hand, I have noted in two inscriptions (C. T. I., p. 53, Nos. 28 and 30) *kalkaṇuka*.

Similarly, other modes of orthography sometimes bring us nearer to, and sometimes take us further from, the learned standard. I may mention *amasa[n]taka*, Nās. 11 B; *banmaniya* beside *banmhana*, C. T. I., p. 14, No. 15; these methods of writing are the more worthy of note because, long before, at Kapur di Giri, we regularly find the spelling *bramaṇa*. C. T. I., p. 46, No. 14, writes *shaṇṇuvisa* equivalent to *śaḍvīṇṣati*, an absolutely sporadic instance of the use of *sha* in this Prākṛit: a similar inscription, no less Prākṛit, writes *putrasa* beside *putasa*, (C. T. I., p. 40, Nos. 3, 5, 6, 7).

These inconsistencies of orthography are all sporadic. That they certainly do not depend on differences of time, can easily be proved by reference to the monuments from which the examples have been drawn.

These monuments are dispersed over a very wide area. Now, between the inscriptions of Gujarāt or of the caves of the Western coast, and those of Amravatī at the mouth of the Kṛishṇa, those of Khandagiri in Orissa, of Sāñchi in Mālava or of Bharhut in Bihār, we find no trace of differences of dialect. They extend over at least four centuries, from the second century B. C. to the 3rd century A. D., without disclosing, between the most ancient and the most modern, any appreciable variation. In an area so extensive, the vulgar tongue certainly could not have failed to divide up into numerous dialects. This is a phenomenon escaped by no language. Literature bears witness to it for the following period, and no one can be tempted to imagine that the fact was then a new one. On the other hand, it is clear that a language cannot pass through four or five centuries in the mouth of the common people without decay and transformation. The earliest literary specimens which we possess of the Prākṛits, the stanzas of Hāla, and the Prākṛits of the most ancient dramas, although in origin but a short distance from the end of the period to which we refer, reveal a phonetic alteration which was much further advanced. Let us, therefore, bring ourselves face to face with the orthographical facts which have just been pointed out.

The parallel employment of forms unequally altered, belonging to different strata of the language shew that this dialect of the monuments, however near we may suppose it to the living popular language, is neither its direct expression nor its faithful imitation. It conceals under a level in part conventional, a more advanced degeneration of the current language — a degeneration of which the distortions are reflected in those more corrupted spellings which accidentally escaped the engravers.

The frequent inconsistencies of the methods of writing shew that we, nevertheless, are not dealing with a language which is rigorously subject to minute rules, and fixed by studies so definitive that their authority had cut short all individual caprices. Nor can we, on the other hand, see in it the spontaneous efflorescence of local dialects freely expanding in their native diversity.

The language is, therefore, neither purely popular, nor entirely subject to rules. Taking all in all, it is to Mixed Sanskrit that the Prākṛit of the inscriptions can be most exactly compared. Both, by the general use to which they were subjected, and by their relative stability, were raised above the character of simple local dialects. In each case each represented an analogous effort, — though arrested at unequal stages, — to compass a regularity, a unification, which, not being yet defined, left more or less room to hesitation and to caprice.

We have just now had to investigate the relationship which united Mixed Sanskrit and Classical Sanskrit; it is no less necessary to determine what, in the linguistic series, were the respective positions which we should assign to this Monumental Prākṛit, and to the Literary Prākṛits.

People are accustomed to call this dialect of the inscriptions, which I designate by the name of Monumental Prākṛit, simply Prākṛit, or, more often, Pāli. This name lends itself to serious misunderstandings. If all that is meant is that in its constituent elements it is very analogous to the Prākṛits, of which Pāli is only a particular form, that is all right; but, so great is the danger arising from the use of terms, which are either imperfectly defined or inaccurately employed, that people are ordinarily prepared to go much further. They admit, as proved, or simply as self-evident, the identity between the two dialects; and such an identity in no way exists.

It is, on the contrary, a very remarkable fact, the explanation of which will have to be methodically searched for, that the literary Prākṛits never appear in the epigraphic monuments: and that the Prākṛit of the monuments never appears in literature.

The material elements being in each case identical and drawn from the same popular source, the points of difference deal more with the form than with essentials. They have less to do with inflexion than with orthography, but they, none the less, certainly exist. Compared with monumental Prākṛit, two features above all others characterize the Prākṛits of literature: on the one hand the regularity with which the orthographical rules peculiar to each are applied, and on the other, the invariable custom of writing double those homogeneous consonants whose doubling is etymologically justifiable, or which results from the assimilation of a non-homogeneous group of consonants.

The few examples given above are sufficient to shew how unstable in its orthography is the Prākṛit of the inscriptions. A reference to the monuments themselves will shew plenty of other proofs. Sometimes a medial consonant is elided, sometimes it is retained: a hard consonant is usually maintained unchanged, but is sometimes softened: the cerebral *ṇ* and the dental *n* are sometimes distinguished, and sometimes one is used alone to the exclusion of the other. The palatal *ṇ* is by turns used or abandoned in words of identical formation. What need we say about the perpetual omissions and confusions which affect the notation of the long vowels? There is nothing like this in the Prākṛit of the books. In them the value of the vowels is everywhere strictly fixed. Does this Prākṛit weaken a medial hard letter to a soft one? Then it does so always. Does that elide a medial soft letter? Then it elides it in every instance. One dialect exclusively employs the dental nasal, another no less exclusively adopts the cerebral. If they use both, they do so under distinct and clearly defined circumstances. I know that in several of these peculiarities people have sought for traces of dialectic or of chronological variations, but we have seen what confusion reigns in a number of inscriptions which belong to the same region and to the same epoch. That confusion allows us to

attribute to such causes only a very secondary action. It, in any case, assigns to Monu-mental Prākṛit a place apart, nigh to, but independent of the Prākṛits of the books.

In order to be more accurate, it is indispensable to examine more closely those Prākṛits of the books, — the Literary Prākṛits.

It has long been recognized that the Prākṛits of the grammarians and of literature are, to a greater or less extent, languages which possess an artificial and a learned character. The very commencement (v. 2) of the collection of Hāla is significant:—

*Amiaṇ pāṭhakavvaṇ
paḍhiuṇ soṭṭiṇ a jē ṇa jāṇanti
kāmaṣṣa taṇṭatantiṇ
kuṇṇanti, tē kaha ṇa lajjanṭi?*

It could, therefore, very well happen that people were unable to understand Prākṛit poetry. A special study was required to follow it. — This is not the only piece of evidence, but the very appearance, the nature of the language, and the way in which it was used, furnish, in this respect, still more decisive arguments.

The mere fact that the plays, even those reputed to be the most ancient, employ at the same time, dialects which have reached very different stages of phonetic decay, will not allow us to admit that these dialects have been really and simply conveyed from real life into literature. The way in which they are employed and their allotment amongst the characters of the play are regulated, not according to the birth-place of the speakers (who in general are supposed to belong to the same country), but in conformity with a comparative scale which assigns each dialect, according to its degree of corruption, to each character according to his social rank. It is needless to shew how arbitrary is such a state of affairs, and how it cannot have been a direct imitation of the truth. If the Mahārāṣṭrī dialect is exclusively reserved for poetic use, it is so because it has been adapted to the purpose by special manipulations, so that it no longer really and exactly represents the language of Mahārāṣṭra. On this point, opinion is, I believe, unanimous, and no one doubts that literary custom and convention are in great part responsible for the emasculation of this language, which appears unable to bear a single strong articulation, and which is resolved into a confused murmur of vowels following one after the other. Even those dialects, which, like the Saurasēṇī, have not been deliberately reduced to this degree of weakness, have certainly not escaped a certain amount of retouching. Languages do not, by their organic movement, go again up the stream, down which they have been carried by the natural action of phonetic decay. If the languages spoken in India at the present day possess articulations which have disappeared in the Prākṛits, the grammatical constitution of which is infinitely more archaic, the use in literature of which is anterior by twelve or fifteen centuries, it is evidently so because the orthography of these Prākṛits does not absolutely represent the condition of the language at the time at which they were employed or fixed. In this respect the Prākṛit grammarians themselves supply significant indications. It is exactly those disdained dialects, which were considered as inferior, that have had their forms least altered, and that are nearest to their etymological origin. The Paisācī preserves the medial consonants which the superior dialects elide (Hémachandra, IV, 324), and the Apabhraṃśa retains the articulation of *r* after a consonant (*ibid.* IV. 398), which is everywhere else suppressed in the uniform level of assimilation.

The names of the dialects, too, contribute their testimony. Titles, such as Apabhra-ṃśa, i. e. 'corruption,' or perhaps, 'corrupted dialect,' Paisācī, 'the dialect of demons,' are not names of definite languages, really existing in a precise region. When we found further distinguished, the Chūlika-Paisācī, or 'Little Paisācī,' the Ardha-Māgadhi, or 'Semi-Māgadhi,' we can scarcely doubt, *a priori*, that we have to do with dialects which are something quite different from simple provincial idioms. I know that my learned fellow-worker and

friend, Dr. Hoernle,² has, with reference to Apabhraṃśa and Ardha-Māgadhi, put forward propositions which would make them local dialects with exact boundaries. I do not think that these theories could be positively maintained. To tell the truth, his views regarding the first would appear to have varied. Recently, in the provisional introduction to the excellent Bihārī Dictionary, he puts forward the Apabhraṃśa as the peculiar dialect of the north-west of India. We see from the preface to his edition of the *Prākṛitalakṣhaṇa* of Chanda (p. xx) that this opinion is chiefly based on one fact, viz., that the edicts of Kapur di Giri agree with the Apabhraṃśa in optionally retaining an *r* following another consonant. Such a basis of classification is insufficient. We have nothing in any tradition to authorise the localisation of the Apabhraṃśa in the north-west. Do not we also find the sporadic retention of this *r* at Girnar, at Nānāghāt, and in other inscriptions of the west? If the Apabhraṃśa thus combines apparently ancient forms with the most advanced instances of decay, this happens, not owing to a dialectic peculiarity, but to the habit, common to all the usual dialects, of drawing freely on the tradition of the learned language, orthography and pronunciation. The Apabhraṃśa of Hēmachandra (IV. 398, cf. 414, &c.), still retains the *r* in composition. Would any one dare to draw chronological deductions from this fact? It employs on occasions the vowel *ri* (IV. 394); are we to see in this use the local survival of a sound lost for so many centuries? Dr. Hoernle was, in my opinion, much nearer the truth, when, in the introduction to his *Comparative Grammar* (pp. xix — xxi) he came into accord with the proposition so learnedly put forward by Prof. Pischel,³ who considers the Apabhraṃśa as the popular dialect, as really spoken, in opposition to the Literary Prākṛit.⁴

He considers that there are as many Apabhraṃśas as Prākṛits, and I think that, in this, he has gone too far; for a great deal is still wanted to prove that each Prākṛit could be viewed as regularly corresponding to a definite local dialect (as we shall see at once in the case of Ardhamāgadhi). But the main fact to be drawn from the passages which he has quoted, or to which he has referred, and from the authoritative statements of the grammarians themselves, is that the Apabhraṃśa is like a general category, into which the grammar throws pell-mell, without attempting to classify them into dialectic groups, a number of peculiarities probably borrowed from current usage and eliminated from the literary idioms. In this way we can explain how the Apabhraṃśa could appear sometimes more archaic, though usually more degenerated, than the learned Prākṛits, in which the affectation of orthographic uniformity, has made the proscription of *tatsamas*, or at least of such as were too apparent, as large as possible.

² [Note by translator. — It is almost unnecessary to state that the fact of his being the translator of M. Senart's luminous arguments, in no way binds Mr. Grierson to either accepting or denying their cogency.]

³ *Academy*, October 1870.

⁴ At the same time I am unable to understand on what arguments the idea, expressed by Dr. Hoernle, that the Apabhraṃśa would appear to represent the popular language spoken by the Aryans, and the Paisāchi the same language as spoken by the aboriginal tribes, is founded. Such an arrangement looks really too systematic, nor is it sufficiently justified by the few divergencies which distinguish the Paisāchi from the Apabhraṃśa. Some of these, such as the hardening of soft consonants, are found now and then at all epochs, from that of Piyadasi to the Prākṛit of the monuments. Dr. Hoernle has himself remarked that, in the more modern grammarians, the confusion between the Paisāchi and the Apabhraṃśa is perpetual (*Comp. Gram.* p. xx, note). I believe, indeed, that they are only two names to distinguish two things which, if not identical, are extremely analogous. It is perhaps for this reason that Vararuchi does not mention the Apabhraṃśa. It is probable that, at the period when his grammar was written, pedants had not yet pushed their taste for arbitrary differentiations so far as to distinguish between an Apabhraṃśa and a Paisāchi. It is certain that, when the distinction first comes to our notice, in the *Prākṛitalakṣhaṇa* (III. 87-88), the two alleged dialects are characterised by traits, — use of the consecutive *r* in Apabhraṃśa, substitution of *l* and *n* for *r* and *ṛ* — which could, in no way, be held sufficient to constitute a difference of dialect. They alone suffice to shew the secondary, theoretical, origin of the separation. When we are told that in Paisāchi the spelling *saṭa* (= *sṭa*) for Sanskrit *ṣṭa* occurs, are we to believe that this debased dialect has naturally perpetuated the etymological spelling? We cannot do so, any more than we can believe that the Apabhraṃśa preserved the consecutive *r*. It simply takes up in *tatsamas*, written with a liberty tolerated by its rudeness, and the borrowing of which this rudeness itself supports, the tradition which we have already found at work at Girnar, several centuries earlier, in spellings like *sṣṣṭ*, &c.

Dr. Hoernle's opinion regarding Ardhamāgadhī rests, unless I am mistaken, on but a weak basis. He has endeavoured to establish from the inscriptions of Piyadasi a geographical partition of the ancient dialects, which I have already, I believe, shewn to have little foundation. We have, as a fact, no indication of the existence, at that ancient period, of a dialect intermediate between the Māgadhī and the Mahārāshṭrī. I would add that, by its name of *Ārsha*, the Ardhamāgadhī is at once classed as a literary language. It would be a strange phenomenon that we should have to take it as denoting a real idiom, — this dialect, whose sole peculiarity is the formation of the nominative singular in *ē*, and which, in other respects, save a few insignificant exceptions, is just the same as Mahārāshṭrī. It bears clearly on its face the mark of its artificial origin. I shall indicate, later on, what we may conjecture as to its formation; and certainly, the first impression awakened by its name, the notion which that name gives of a scholastic idiom, is not one that will mislead us.

It is true that, beside these instructive names, other dialects received local titles which connected each with a definite tract of country. I do not even wish to insist on the fact that the principal dialect, the one which serves as the basis for the teaching of the grammarians, instead of habitually receiving its name of Mahārāshṭrī, is called *Prākṛita*, the *Prākṛit par excellence*, which manifestly contrasts it, as an artificial language, with that other learned and literary language, which is *Saṃskṛita*, the Sanskrit. This detail can well have only a secondary importance, and it remains certain that several *Prākṛits* are designated by geographical names; *Mahārāshṭrī*, *Saurasēni*, *Māgadhī*. It is natural to conclude that they are connected respectively with the countries of the Mahārāshṭra, of the Surasēnas, and of Magadha. But to what degree, and in what sense are they connected?

That each borrows certain characteristic peculiarities from the popular dialect of the country of which it bears the name, is a thought which will at once occur to the mind. Several facts confirm it. Some of the phenomena attributed to Māgadhī by the grammarians — the formation of the nominative of *a*-bases in *ē*, the substitution of *l* for *r* — are also found in the official dialect of Piyadasi, and the situation of the royal residence entitles us to consider that as approximately representing the idiom of Magadha. Whatever we may be led to think of the work of regularisation and of the cutting down to measure by the grammarians, it is certain that they have taken their materials for foundation, their constituent elements, from the vulgar dialects, and the names which have remained attached to the literary idioms, when they have a definite geographical meaning, deserve to be taken into serious consideration. Till the contrary is proved, they supply us with an historic basis, which we cannot abandon without committing a serious imprudence. So far as concerns the Mahārāshṭrī, the comparisons which the inscriptions of the western coast, in the land of Mahārāshṭra, permit us to institute, shew that no incompatibility exists between what we can identify as belonging to the popular language, and the rules of the grammatical idiom. The only thing is that we must clearly understand under what conditions these comparisons present themselves. *Mahārāshṭra*, where we find at once both a long series of monuments, and, in the verses of Hāla, an ancient, probably the most ancient, instance of the application of *Prākṛit* to literature, is the tract most favourably circumstanced for us to form a clear idea, on actual evidence, of the manner in which the reform of the *Prākṛit* grammarians was accomplished.

On a consideration of the *Prākṛit* inscriptions of the West we have been convinced that, although they are necessarily based on the popular language of the locality, they do not give us a rigorously faithful picture of it. Their orthography is not strictly representative; but, without having that stability which can only be assured by a complete grammatical culture, it tends to get as near as it can to etymology, that is to say to the orthography preserved by the learned language. It takes as the typical ideals of its writing those instances in which the pronunciation has departed least from the primitive form. The parallel use of Mixed Sanskrit is there to prove that this conclusion does not arbitrarily attribute to the authors of the monumental orthography a predisposition which was not theirs.

What about the literary Mahārāṣṭrī? We know, in the first place, that the grammarians distinguish two varieties, — the ordinary Mahārāṣṭrī, which is that of Hāla and of a portion of the poetry of the plays, and the Mahārāṣṭrī of the Jainas.⁵ We can for the moment neglect the shades which distinguish these two groups; taken as a whole, they closely resemble each other, as we should expect in the case of dialects which, bearing the same name, must have sprung up in the same soil. Between this literary idiom, and that of the monuments, numerous points of difference leap to the front the moment we examine them. We must consider these differences more closely.

The literary orthography ordinarily weakens into the corresponding sonant the hard *f*; I have quoted above, from the inscriptions, the spellings *mukūḍa*, *vādaka*, *dhānukakāḍa*, *kuḍumbini*, *sālakaṇi*, *sādagārī*, *paḍidātava*, *paḍithāpita*, &c., by the side of the more usual writing which retains the consonant as in the standard Sanskrit. The literary language readily weakens *p* into *b* or *v*, and it completely elides the medial *t*; I have quoted above the sporadic spellings *thūḍa* for *thūpa* (*stūpa*), *gōyamā* for *gautamā* (*ma*). The grammarians teach that a soft consonant between two vowels is elided; in the monuments, we have met words like *bhayanāta*, *bharāta*, beside *bhadanāta*, *siaguta* for *śivagupta*, *pavaṭta* and *pavayita* for *pavajita*, *bhōgi* and *bhāa* for *bhōjika* and *bhōja*, *pāyuna* and *pāuna* for *pādōna*, *vyaraka* beside *ōvaraka*, *chiarika*, beside the usual *chivarika*, *paṭṭhāna* for *paḍiṭhāna*, representing *pratishṭhāna*. The locative singular of bases in *a* is formed in the Prākṛit of literature in *ē*, and more usually in *aṇmi*; if in the monuments it is almost always formed in *ē*, we, nevertheless, find examples like *jaṃbudīpamhi* (Karli No. 10, *Arch. Surv.* IV. 91); and, beside the locative *tiraṇhumhi*, the spelling *tiraṇhumi* (i. e., *tiraṇhumhi*) (*Arch. Surv.* p. 106, No. 14). So, also, *baṇmani* beside *baṇmhana* in the same dedication. These instances prove that the termination *mhi* was altered, in a manner more or less constant, into *aṇmi* in the vulgar pronunciation.

The *y* is constantly changed into *j* in the regular writing, and, consequently, *yy* into *jj*, and the group *rya* into *jjā*, through an intermediate *yya*. Cases like *sihadhayānaṇ*, (C. T. I., p. 31), No. 7; for *śhajānaṇ*, *vāṇiyiyasa*, p. 16, No. 20, *pyayatham*, Kaṇh. No. 98, *rāyāmacha*, *Arch. Surv.* IV. p. 99, No. 4 (perhaps we might add *bhōya* beside *bhōja*), prove that in real pronunciation there was no distinction between *y* and *j*. Elsewhere, beside learned spellings like *āchariya* (C. T. I., p. 100), *ācharia*, Kaṇh. No. 17, we meet the forms *āyyaka*, Kaṇh. No. 19, C. T. I., p. 60, No. 2; *bhayayā*, C. T. I., p. 43, No. 6, &c., *payavasānē*, *Arch. Surv.* p. 114, No. 22; and the sporadic spellings, *bhajāya*, Kaṇh. 19, 27; *bharījāyē*, Nās. 22; *bhādrajanijja*, Kaṇh. 27, beside *pāṇiyya*, do not permit us to doubt that, between the grammars and the inscriptions, the difference was purely apparent, and simply graphic. I could quote other details, and, compared with the sūtras I. 29; III. 129, of Hēmachandra, point out, in the monuments, the spellings *ātēvāsini*, Kaṇh. 28, Kuḍa 22, *idāgni*, *Arch. Surv.* IV. 114, No. 3, &c., *dō*, Kaṇh. No. 3, beside *dō* (Mahad. 1), or *vē* (Junnar, 14).

These comparisons suffice to put in its true light the character of the grammatical dialect. It is founded on the same local basis as the idiom of the monuments: both represent the same language but at slightly different periods of its history: both modify its appearance by an orthography which is in part arbitrary, but dominated in each case by divergent predilections. The one, when it is inspired with learned recollections, ordinarily chooses as its standard the least altered etymological form: the other goes, so to speak, to the extreme limit of existing corruptions; it prefers to take the most advanced facts of phonetic deterioration, as the level which grammatical elaboration imposes with a more or less absolute regularity on the system which it has consecrated.

The arbitrary constructions of the school can, of course, work in more than one direction. We must expect not only to find different tendencies, but also to meet both partial instances of unfaithfulness to the regulative tendency, — and also elements and distinc-

⁵ Jacobi, *Kalpa Sutra*, Introd. p. xvii.

tions which are purely artificial, mingled in a variable proportion with the elements which have been directly supplied by the popular speech. A comparison of the various literary Mahârâshtrîs, the parallel employment of which I have already mentioned, throws a striking light upon this point of view.

As Professor Jacobi (*loc. cit.*) points out, the Mahârâshtrî of Vararuchi and the poets differs from that of Hêmachandra and the Jains in two main peculiarities. The former does not use the *ya-îruti*, and everywhere substitutes the cerebral *ṇ* for the dental *n*: the latter retains the dental *n* at the commencement of words, and when it is doubled. It is quite natural that the origin of these divergencies has first been sought for,⁶ either in diversities of dialect, or in differences of time; but I should be surprised if anyone, with the knowledge which we are now beginning to acquire of Indian epigraphy, could persevere in this view.

So far as concerns the first point, the introduction of a *y* between vowels — or, according to Hêmachandra, more exactly, between two *a*'s — which form an hiatus, I lay no stress on several circumstances, disagreement between the grammarians, disagreement between the rules of the grammar and the manuscript tradition,⁷ which *à priori*, appear to indicate that this rule is susceptible of arbitrary extensions and restrictions. I content myself with calling the texts of the inscriptions as witnesses. The ordinary orthography is too ready to adopt the methods of the learned language to allow many hiatus to exist. I have, however, quoted many examples, and I could quote more; *bhôa*, *bhôgi*, *pâuna*, *chiarika*, *paithâna*, *bhaamta*, *pulumdi*, *phulua*; the spellings *chêtiasa* (Kanh. 5), *pañiasiya* (Kanh. 4), the terminations *pavâtikâu*, *pônakiasanâa*, (Kanh. 21), *bhayâa* (Kanh. 27). It follows that from an epoch earlier than that of our literary authorities, the local pronunciation supported the existence of the hiatus in Mahârâshtra, as well as in the other provinces of India. It must be assumed that, there as elsewhere, but not more than elsewhere, the hiatus implied a light utterance-break analogous to the soft breathing. If this has been denoted by means of the *y*, whether in all, or in special cases, the choice can be explained on the one hand by the imitation of a certain number of terminations of the learned declension, and on the other by the fact that the change in every case of an original *y* to *j*, left the sign for *y* available for a special function. Sometimes the inscriptions apply *v* for this purpose, as in *pulumdvisa* (Nâs. 15), *bhayâva vêlîdatâva* (Kudâ, No. 23), and the parallel employment in this last inscription of the spelling *vyaraka*, for *uvaraka*, clearly shews that neither the *v* in the one case nor the *y* in the other represented any actual pronunciation. They are merely equivalent expedients for concealing from the eyes a hiatus which the recollections of the cultivated language caused to be considered as clumsy and barbarous. It was a similar idea, and not a chimerical peculiarity of a local dialect, which has caused the employment of the *ya-îruti* by one school, and which has subsequently caused it to pass into the rules of its grammars and into the usages of its books.

As for the use of the dental *n* and the cerebral *ṇ*, the case is, if possible, still more striking. At first sight, a dialect which invariably pronounces an initial *n* in one way and a medial *n* in another, should surprise us and put us on our guard. But the question is more general, and the case is susceptible of being argued with greater precision.

I must confess that I cannot sufficiently express my surprise to see nowadays the distinction between the cerebral and the dental nasal taken as a basis of classification when dealing with the ancient Prâkrîts. It will be remembered how the form of the cerebral **I** is known to none of the inscriptions of Piyadasi which are couched in the Mâgadhi orthography. The dental **I** is alone used. If this is a peculiarity of the dialect, it is very curious that, in the literary Mâgadhi, the dental *n* should, on the contrary, completely disappear, and that the cerebral *ṇ* alone should be admitted. At Bharhut, the ordinary inscriptions know only one **I**, the dental *n*; but there is, nevertheless, one exception, and it is characteristic. The royal inscrip-

⁶ Jacobi, p. 16. — E. Müller, *Beitr. Zur. Gramm. des Jainaprâkrîts*, pp. 3 and ff.

⁷ Cf. Fischel, *Hêmach.* I. 180.

tion of the eastern porch, dated in the reign of the Śuṅgas, uses concurrently both forms **𑀘** and **𑀙** ; but in what way ? It has *pôtēṇa*, *putēṇa*, *putēṇa*, probably *tōraṇaṃ* and certainly *upaṇṇa*.⁸ If both forms are here known, it is quite clear that the distinction between them is, not popular, but arbitrary and learned. This is proved not merely by its inconsistencies and by its irregularities, but by the application of the cerebral *ṇ* to terminations in which its presence is explicable in Sanskrit, but in Sanskrit only, by the proximity of an *r* which has disappeared in the vulgar idiom. At Girnar, at the time of the edicts of Aśoka, where the distinction between *ṇ* and *n* is marked, the pedantic imitation does not go so far, — the cerebral *ṇ* never appearing in terminations. At Sāñchi, the state of affairs is very analogous to that which is presented at Bharhut. In all the ancient dedications the **𑀙** is unknown. It only makes its appearance in an inscription of the reign of Śātakarṇi (No. 190), the introducer of Sanskrit into the epigraphy of the Andhras. At the other extremity of India, in the monuments of Ceylon, the signs **𑀘** and **𑀙** are evidently employed without distinction, and it is natural to conclude that the case was the same in the region from which that great island had borrowed its alphabet. It is a curious fact that the only inscription (No. 57 of E. Müller) in which a deliberate distinction appears to have been made — we have in it *mahasaraṇē*, *budhasaraṇagatē*, beside *nati* (*nathi*), *aṭṭhāṇē*, *niyatē* — appears to be directly based on a Māgadhī dialect, and yet, in its use of **𑀘** and **𑀙**, it deviates equally both from the practice of Piyadasi, and from the rules of the literary Māgadhī.

Nowhere are things more clear than in the tract which interests us more immediately, the country of Mahārāṣṭra. I have just drawn attention to the fact that in the root-portion of words, Girnar follows Sanskrit in distinguishing between the two *n*'s. At Nānāghāt, the ancient Andhras knew nothing but the dental *n*. The cerebral **𑀙** reappears in the period following, we have seen above under what conditions. The confusion is continual. No fixed rule allows us to disentangle it. Neighbouring inscriptions make exclusive use, the one of **𑀘**, the other of **𑀙**. The meaning of this hesitation, of this medley, is further accentuated by the parallel facts concerning the palatal *ṇ*. This nasal has disappeared in the literary Mahārāṣṭrī, and is replaced by the cerebral or by the dental. Nevertheless, in the inscriptions, we constantly find the genitive *rāṇō*, and also forms such as *hēraṇika* (C. T. I., p. 54, No. 32). On the other hand spellings such as *haliṇaka* (C. T. I., p. 53, Nos. 28, 30) are of a nature to lead us to conclude that the *ṇ* is no longer a living letter. We have, indeed, already quoted *āraṇaka*, *anō*, *andni*, *hēraṇika*, *pāna*, *nāti*, &c., which shew that the use of the sign *ṇ* is only a mere pedantic affectation.⁹ It is certainly not otherwise with the signs **𑀘** and **𑀙**. In the inscriptions they represent a value which is in both cases absolutely identical; and if the grammatical reform of the literary dialects has assigned to them special rôles, it is owing to an arbitrary differentiation which has no connexion with the actual variations of the current pronunciation.

Although summary, these remarks are, unless I am mistaken, sufficient to mark the peculiar characteristics of Monumental Prākṛit, and also, more especially, of the Literary Prākṛits, and to present them under their true aspect. This is an indispensable preparation for elucidating the problem with which we are concerned. It resolves itself into two terms; when and how were the Literary Prākṛits constituted? These two points embrace all the secondary questions.

It is a trite observation that languages, in the normal course of their history, are invariably subject to a gradual decay of their phonetic elements. This is a current down which all float. None can, of itself, go up the stream by its natural movement. This has ordinarily, and very naturally, been made the basis of the relative chronology of the dialects of India. The

⁸ It is very possible that this state of affairs was in reality much more ancient. In fact, putting aside the peculiar spelling *ṇayāsu* (G. VIII. 1), the edicts of Girnar, along with the ordinary orthography of *ṇ* for *ny* have in one passage (VIII. 4) the reading *hīraṇna*. Inversely, while the *ṇ* appears nowhere in the edicts in the Māgadhī dialect, Dhauḷi presents an unique example in *paṭimāṇī* for *pratiṇī*, always supposing that the reading of the *Corpus* is exact, which I have great difficulty in believing.

preceding remarks make evident with what particular reservations we should here surround the application of this principle. In themselves, the Sanskrit forms are certainly more archaic ; they are historically older than the Prākṛit forms of the time of Piyadasi. Yet that does not prevent Sanskrit, as a whole language, in the form in which we know it now, having only succeeded in conquering for itself an existence long after the rise of his Prakṛit. So it is with the different Prākṛits. The general phonetic appearance of Pāli is certainly more archaic than that of Mahārāṣṭrī. Have we any right to conclude that therefore it actually existed, in its definitive form and orthography, before Mahārāṣṭrī ? In no way. In short, we must carefully distinguish between the constituent elements of the dialect, considered directly, and their utilization in the shape of a particular literary dialect, adapted to a certain order of production. We cannot apply to literary idioms, in part artificial and learned, the same measure as that which we apply to purely popular languages. They, the former, can, in a sense, go up the regular stream of their linguistic development. This is the very fact which we have proved for Mixed Sanskrit. When I speak of inquiring into the age of the Literary Prākṛits I mean, not to determine the epoch to which the elements, morphological and phonetic, of which they are composed, can be traced up, but to fix the moment when they were arrested, crystallized, in a definite form for literary use. For this purpose the forms which are the most altered are those which are most-instructive. They can be made to prove that such a dialect cannot be earlier than such a given epoch. The better preserved forms prove nothing. They may have been either subsequently reconstructed in the light of the learned language, or preserved for a greater or less period by tradition before receiving their place and their consecration in the special dialect of which they finally formed an integral part.

The criterion, therefore, founded exclusively on the general phonetic appearance of the dialects must be resolutely put to one side, if we wish to avoid misconceptions regarding the most certain, the most characteristic features of the history which we are endeavouring to build up.

This being settled, a two-fold object of inquiry presents itself. On the one side, the relation existing between the Prākṛits of the monuments and that of the books, and of the other, the relation existing between the literary Prākṛits and Sanskrit.

To set to deliberately, to convert, by systematic work, popular dialects into literary dialects with forms fixed for ever, is not so simple an idea that it would suggest itself of itself, and that it should not require any explanation. Such an undertaking must evidently be regulated on a prototype, on some pre-established model. India possesses a type of this description, Sanskrit. Indeed, if we pay heed to the names, *prākṛita* and *sanskṛita* are correlative terms. The actual bond which connects together the two series of facts is certainly no less close than the formal relationship of the names which designate them. Historically, the earlier term is Sanskrit. On that point there can be no possible doubt. It is the very elaboration and diffusion of Sanskrit which has served as the basis and model for the elaboration of the Prākṛits. They have been regularised in imitation of it. The recollection of this origin is perpetuated in the teaching of the grammarians. They take care to establish that Prākṛit has Sanskrit for its basis and for its source (*Hémach.* I. 1, and Dr. Pischel's notes). It would be a mistake to attribute to the Hindūs, on the strength of such a remark, the idea of a linguistic genealogy founded on comparative analysis. When Vararuchi and others (cf. *Lassen, Instit. Ling. Prākṛit*, p. 7) declare that the *prākṛiti* of Saurasēni is Sanskrit, and that of Mahārāṣṭrī and of Paisāchi the Saurasēni, it is quite clear that we must not take the proposition in an historical sense. It is nothing but a manner of stating that Saurasēni, in various characteristics, approaches Sanskrit orthography more nearly than the other dialects, — that it is in a fashion midway between the learned language, and the dialects with a more altered orthography. It is not a genealogical classification, but an entirely practical one. It is something like a direct recognition of the method according to which these languages have received their grammatical fixation. This working has taken for its basis the grammar of the learned language, and for its principle the gradation of each of them on a determined level below the stage of Sanskrit.

I now come to the second object of inquiry.

Monumental Prākṛit and the Literary Prākṛits start from the same source. Their main difference consists in this, that they have been unequally cultivated. The latter possess a character more stable, their mode of writing is more perfect. Is this to be explained by indifference to these particulars on the side of the former? Certainly not. The part which it plays as the official language of the inscriptions, the general level which it knows how to retain above the more altered local dialects, allow us to recognise in it an idiom already refined, and with an inevitable tendency, as is universal in India, to establish itself as a fixed and regular language. How could we believe, if there already existed, in the Literary Prākṛits, a parallel model of better regulated and more complete orthography, that the writers could have, when using the language for inscriptions, neglected to profit by it, and to utilize its experience?

But general considerations are not sufficient. Whatever it be worth, the demonstration, to be conclusive, must be connected with precise and characteristic phenomena. The facts relating to the graphic representation of double consonants have afforded us valuable assistance for establishing certain essential points in the comparative history of Classical and Mixed Sanskrit, and the *data* of the same order are no less instructive in the new ground on which we tread at present.

The Literary Prākṛits observe every doubling without exception. There does not exist a single Prākṛit text which departs from this rule, or a single grammarian who does not explicitly teach it, or shew by evidence that he assumes it. The strictness with which it is uniformly introduced in all the dialects shews that we have here a rule which has from the very commencement exercised its influence on the grammatical work.⁹

This mode of writing seems, in itself, to be perfectly simple; it is only the expression of the actual pronunciation. But the matter is not so easy as that. Not only does the most ancient orthography, that of the edicts of Piyadasi, abstain from observing it, but we have seen that Mixed Sanskrit, in spite of the tendency which led it to approach historically older forms, adopted it slowly, and, as I have admitted, under the influence of Classical Sanskrit. It is no less a stranger to the Prākṛit of the monuments throughout the whole period with which we are now dealing. We are entitled to affirm this as a general fact, though I shall shortly point out certain exceptions, which, far from weakening the rule tend to emphasize its correctness.

This graphic usage of the literary Prākṛits, which is inseparable from their very elaboration and from their grammatical establishment, was, therefore, not borrowed by them from earlier established customs. It is not met in epigraphy, nor in the current practice which epigraphy certainly reflects. It can only have been borrowed by them, as it was borrowed by Mixed Sanskrit, from the pre-existing orthography of Classical Sanskrit. I have just shewn that it was *à priori* more than probable that the very idea of refining the local dialects into literary tongues, and still more probably the principles under which the latter were elaborated, must have had their source in the existence, in the employment, and in the rule of profane Sanskrit. This orthographical peculiarity lends to this view a new and positive foundation in fact, and certain *data* borrowed from epigraphy shew it in its full light.

I have said that the Prākṛit of the inscriptions does not double its consonants. It remains, in this respect, faithful to the ancient tradition. This fidelity is not invariable, and does not endure to an indefinite period. From a certain epoch, we find some examples of doubling appearing sporadically. The last inscription of Vāsīṭhīputa Pulumāyī (A. S., IV. p. 113, No. 21) has *śēṭapharaṇaputtasya*. The termination *asya*, which is repeated in *sōvasakasya*, *abuldmavāthavasya*, clearly shews that the engraver employed this doubling in a moment of Sanskritizing imitation. In the purely Prākṛit texts of Mādhārīputa Sakasēna, we meet

⁹ Amongst the neo-Aryan languages, Sindhi, re-adopting in its case the primitive inexactness of the Hindi orthography, neglects to note these doublings; but it none the less faithfully observes them in pronunciation.

āyākēna (A. S., V. p. 19, No. 14), *āyākēna* and *buddha* (*ibid.* p. 82, No. 19). The maintenance of the long vowel before the double consonant is here to reveal a Sanskrit influence, and an analogous action is altogether natural in the participle *buddha*, which is identical in the learned language and in the popular tradition. Doublings (even purely Prākṛit ones) are more numerous in No. 27 of Kaṇhēri (A. S., p. 85): *pāṇiyya*°, *bhāḍrajaṇiḍḍānaṁ*, *etta*, *ekka*, *ettō*, *puttāna*, *savvasēva*, *īḥitānaṁ*, *tī*. This inscription is, generally speaking, rather couched in Mixed Sanskrit, forms like *pratigrahē*, *putrasya*, *kulasya*, bear witness to a more or less direct action on the part of classical orthography. Its linguistic level is, in other respects, very uneven, and side by side with these Sanskrit forms, appears a genitive like *dhutua*. Dr. Bühler, whose experience on this point is entitled to great respect, considers that this inscription, written in Andhra characters, contains some forms of more modern letters. It, therefore, most probably, belongs to the third century.

These facts speak clearly. It is certain that Prākṛit, as it was written on the monuments, was quite ready to accept the graphic doubling of consonants. From the moment when the diffusion of Sanskrit set the example of this doubling, this tendency shews itself in various dispersed instances, welling over from Mixed Sanskrit to introduce itself into Prākṛit. These instances form the evidence of the movement which was inevitably destined to carry on the Prākṛits in its course. They shew also that this movement had not yet resulted in the fixation of the orthography of the Prākṛits, for, in that case we should find in the Prākṛit of the monuments, instead of rare indications, a constant practice.

Later facts prove that this is not an unfounded conjecture.

It will be remembered that after the commencement of the 3rd century, the series of epigraphical monuments is interrupted by an unfortunate *lacuna*. The most ancient inscriptions which come next to carry on the chain of tradition, are, so far as is at present known, a few epigraphs of the Pallavas. The earliest is an endowment of Vijayabuddhavarman.¹⁰ Messrs. Burnell and Fleet agree, on palæographical grounds, in attributing it to the fourth century.¹¹ Of the four faces which are covered with writing, only the last is in Sanskrit. In the condition in which they have come down to us, the three first do not appear to be susceptible of a continued translation, but that is not indispensable for our present purpose. Whatever may be the difficulties and uncertainties, the general fact which concerns us leaps at once prominently into notice. Words like *sirivijayaḥkhandavammamahārājassa*, *yuvamahārājassa*, *sirivijayabuddhavammasa*, *pāduttare pāsē* shew us a Prākṛit which, for the first time in the series of epigraphs, doubles its consonants like the grammatical Prākṛits. This, too, is not an accident or a caprice. The copper-plates of Hirahadagalli, which belong to the same dynasty, and to the same time, and which have been kindly communicated to me by Mr. Burgess,¹² use on the whole the same orthography.

The fact is of high importance. It conclusively testifies how the writing of the monuments was naturally inclined to adopt the more regular and accurate orthography used by the Literary Prākṛits. If, therefore, it had not adopted it sooner, it was because that use had not yet been established. It thus gives us a means for determining with sufficient approximation the epoch in which the final elaboration of the Prākṛits occurred.

To sum up. The reform of the Literary Prākṛits was subsequent to the diffusion of Sanskrit in profane use, and cannot therefore, be earlier than the first centuries of our era. In the 4th century it had been carried out; at least, the general system had been established. This is borne witness to by the reaction which it exercised upon the Prākṛit of the monuments; all that we do not know is to what dialects it at first extended. The few examples of doubling which we find in the epigraphs of the end of the 2nd century, or of the beginning of the 3rd, would seem to mark this epoch as the period of this grammatical work.

¹⁰ Fleet, *Ind. Ant.* 1880, p. 100.

¹¹ *Ind. Ant.* 1876, pp. 175 and ff.

¹² It has since been published by Dr. Bühler in *Epigraphica Indica*, Part I.

Without being in a position to state with positive accuracy, we cannot be far wrong in asserting that the second and third centuries are the earliest time at which it can have been brought forward into practice. It is clear that this work cannot have been contemporaneous for all the dialects, and that, for several, it has only been carried out at a much later period.

These conclusions compel us to accept an important consequence. This consequence is that all the Pāli-Prākṛit literature which we possess is, in the orthographical form in which we now have it, later than the grammatical reform of the Prākṛits, and later than the 2nd or 3rd century.

I must here do away with a scruple which might arise in the reader's mind, and suggest one explanation.

My last inductions are principally founded on the date of the doubling of consonants in writing. Am I not exaggerating the importance of an orthographical detail?

It will first be remarked that the argument drawn from doubling, if I have been right in insisting upon it on account of facts which allow us to treat it with a striking degree of accuracy, comes simply to confirm and to circumscribe, from the point of view of chronology, a proposition which *a priori* compelled its own acceptance. Or can any one doubt that the regularisation of the Prākṛits, such as we find it both in grammatical manuals and in literary works, was not necessarily later than the final elaboration and diffusion into common life of Sanskrit, or that it was not inspired by and modelled on it? This imitation of Sanskrit perforce carries us, after what has been said above, to at least the second century.

Moreover, we must take care not to minimize too much the importance of this graphic phenomenon. For several centuries, through minor modifications, a certain orthographical system was maintained in the Prākṛit of the monuments, without undergoing any attack, or submitting to any compromise. All at once, we find, one day, this system modified, and modified in a regular, constant manner, in one of its most characteristic traits. The incident, from a grammatical point of view, is not so petty. By its very suddenness, by the strictness with which the new principle is applied, it indicates that a revolution of some magnitude has intervened.

This doubling may pass for a detail, but it is not an isolated one. It forms an integral part of a more general reconstruction. It is one of the most apparent manifestations, but it is far from exhausting them. The fixation of the Prākṛits by the learned has also touched other points. There is no appearance or indication of its having been executed in successive stages, and, so to speak, in several acts. It can only be understood as taking place at a single blow in the first dialects which were subjected to it. It could subsequently have extended to the others by a natural process of imitation. If we prove the application of one characteristic feature of the system, we may be assured that that system in its entirety has just, for the first time, been put in practice.

A decisive fact testifies to the importance of this moment in the history of the Prākṛits. It is natural that one graphic system should disappear from use on the arrival of a system, which was more complete and more consistent to itself. That is what happened to Mixed Sanskrit in the presence of Sanskrit. Now, with the 3rd century, Monumental Prākṛit disappears without return. The Pallava inscriptions are in pure Pāli, and after that epoch, Sanskrit remains, alone amongst the tongues of Aryan stock, as the language of epigraphy.

The objection, therefore, appears to me to be divested of serious importance.

As for the explanation, I can be brief.

Of Prākṛit of earlier date than the grammatical reform, we possess no positive documents other than epigraphic evidence. All the literary works are written according to the system established by the grammarians, and they all bear evident traces of the levelling process which followed the scholastic reform. I conclude from this that all, from the Sinhalese canon and the canon of the Jainas to the verses of Hāla and to the dramas, are, in the actual form in

which we now have them, of later date than the labours of the grammarians, and consequently, than the third century.

Are we, therefore, to conclude that the dialects which the schools retouched, had never, before this epoch, been applied to literature? Such is not my opinion. We shall see, on the contrary, that the use for which several have been specialized, the archaic form which several of them have preserved, can only be explained by the existence of certain traditions, either literary or religious. People composed stanzas in Mahārāṣṭrī before the collection of Hāla was written in its present form. Long before the Sinhalese *Tripiṭaka* was fixed in the shape in which we now read it, there existed, amongst certain sects of Buddhists, a number of formulæ, rules, and legends transmitted in a dialect in its essence closely resembling the Pāli of our books. We must, nevertheless, take care not to exaggerate the accuracy or the importance of these earlier compositions. They must have remained purely oral, or, at most, had only received a written form, which was accidental and ephemeral. A sect, Buddhist, Jaina or other, which possessed, whether written, or even living in a finally established oral tradition, a definite and consecrated canon, would certainly never have consented to alter it by submitting it to a new grammatical remodelling. Moreover, this grammatical retouching must have been at first undertaken in answer to a demand, to give for the new requirements of editing and codification, the instrument which was necessary to them. The fixation and the reform of a dialect peculiar to the sect, which was used for its fundamental texts, can only be conceived as occurring at the date when they were for the first time united in a definitive collection of traditions, which had hitherto been either imperfect or dispersed. If they had been established sooner in a canonical *corpus*, the language of that *corpus* would itself have been the law. Its authority would have rendered reform both useless and impossible. This reform would, on the other hand, under the conditions in which it was produced, have been equally inexplicable, if we did not admit previous attempts at editing. Although imperfect and fragmentary, they have, in a general way, marked for each dialect the low-water mark of its phonetic development, and furnished the characteristic traits of its morphology.

It is expressly subject to this reserve that we must understand the conclusions which I have indicated. At the present moment, I am only dealing with a special class of considerations. It is unnecessary to say that there are arguments of another nature which appear to me to confirm these inductions. I here leave them aside, and only wish to point out, *en passant*, one interesting instance of agreement. There are reasons for believing that the stanzas of Hāla represent the most ancient specimen of Prākṛit literature. In the course of his learned and ingenious labours on this valuable collection, Prof. A. Weber¹⁸ has proved that the third century is the earliest date to which it is possible to refer it.

I have now replied, so far as the documents on which I depend appear to allow, to this first question; — at what epoch did the Literary Prākṛits begin to be fixed and to establish themselves? We should also like to know how and under the influence of what circumstances this blossoming forth took place.

This question has hitherto been treated as a simple problem of linguistics. Each dialect has been considered as having been, at the epoch when it received its literary form, a spoken and living idiom. Taking this principle as a foundation, a series based solely on phonetic comparisons has been converted into a chronological scale. I have protested against this confusion, and indicated why, in my opinion, we must discard a criterion which has been adopted with too ready a confidence.

The literary elaboration of the Prākṛits cannot have been earlier than the second or third century. It has been in no way proved, and, indeed, it is hardly probable, that it should

¹⁸ Weber, *Das Septasatākah des Hāla*, p. xxiii.

have taken place for all the Prākṛits at the same time. Once given the initiatory impulse, the new comers could have followed a movement to which they were originally strangers. In each case it is a special question, less of linguistics than of literary history, which is necessarily difficult and delicate, and which demands thorough investigation for each dialect. I am not called upon to enter, nor should I have the means of entering, upon such an inquiry, even admitting — and I am very far from admitting — that each of these separate problems is at the present moment ripe for discussion. It is sufficient for me to indicate certain facts which appear as if they would throw some light on the problem as a whole.

On looking at it nearer, it resolves itself into two questions.

We must understand why some of the popular dialects were transformed into literary dialects more or less touched up by learned hands.

We must discover how and under what circumstances each received the particular form in which it has been ultimately fixed.

The previous existence of Sanskrit gives an easy reply to the first question. Learned languages have been settled in India in all parts and at all periods. The continued tradition of a religious language distinct from the current tongue, the ancient creation of a literary language fashioned on its model, a language consecrated both by its origin and by the privileged position of its authors, — all these very special conditions sufficiently explain the fact. To this must be added the influence of the social constitution. By the overruling authority which it conferred on the Brāhmins, it assured to scholastic formalism, to the preferences and undertakings of the learned, an empire altogether surer and more powerful than could otherwise have been expected.

I content myself, therefore, with merely pointing out the causes, the action of which has been so evident.

The second question is more complex: why should such and such dialects and not such and such others have been the object of this literary culture? How comes it that dialects in very different degrees of degeneration could have been fixed under parallel circumstances, and, more, at an epoch long posterior to the linguistic period represented by their respective constituent elements? What influences have determined the level at which each one has been arrested?

If the existence of a learned language, like Sanskrit, is an indispensable postulate for the very existence of the Literary Prākṛits, its influence was not confined to an initiatory impulse. It is manifest that the classical grammar has, in matters of detail, played the part of a regulator. The classical language fixed in all its parts, surrounded by so much authority and prestige, would present itself to learned labour as a type of perfection: its action could not fail to be powerful. It is the existence of it alone which can explain how such a partial reorganization, a partial levelling, could have taken place without throwing the whole into irremediable disorganisation. The model was there, at once a light and a restraint.

If we take these dialects in themselves and in their separate destinies, it is not difficult to discern several factors which have not only rendered possible, but which have prepared the way for, and which have inspired, their definitive constitution.

All the Prākṛits have their roots diving deep into the popular language. The ethnic names which several bear, may, in one or more instances, be deceptive, but, certainly, all their essential elements are originally borrowed from the living language. This peculiarity is common to all, but all the popular dialects have not been raised to the rank of grammatical Prākṛits. This learned crystallization of several of them, occurring at an epoch when Sanskrit was coming into common use and had put in the hands of all an excellent literary instrument, must have had special reason for its motive in each particular case. Several such reasons, literary or religious, local or scholastic, will readily suggest themselves.

If the definitive fixation of the Prākṛits, and, as a consequence, the drawing up into their present form of the works which have come down to us, cannot have been appreciably earlier than the third century, it is very plain that neither these languages, nor these works could have one day sprung from nothing. They must have had antecedents. There certainly existed, in a more or less rudimentary condition, long before this epoch, a popular and profane literature, hardly or not at all written, but nevertheless living. We find positive traces of it in the inscriptions. I need not refer, in the inscription of Siripulumāyi (Nās. No. 14), to the well-known allusions to the Epic legend. The religious sects could have, nay, must have, from the age of their foundation, preserved teachings and relations, and, at the same time, a more or less altered tradition of the language which had at first served for their propagation. It is from these sources that the arbiters of the literary renovation were able to draw the characteristic elements of the idioms to which they gave a definitive form. In several respects the situation of the Prākṛits is altogether analogous to that of Sānskr̥it as I understand it, and as I have sketched it above.

If Mahārāṣṭrī has become, in preference to every other dialect, the language of song-poetry, it is because it was in Mahārāṣṭra more than elsewhere, that there had spontaneously developed a poetry which served as a model for more learned attempts. The Jainas, while using the Mahārāṣṭrī, have introduced into it the termination *ś* of nominatives masculine. The name Māgadhī preserved for their dialect well shews that this innovation is, as it were, a last echo of the recollections which they had kept of this country of Magadha, with which more than one historic tie connected them. It is evidently an analogous recollection which is expressed in the application of the same name, Māgadhī, to the language of the Sinhalese *Tripitaka*. A few rare Māgadhisms can hardly pass for a mark of origin. Several traces of Māgadhisms, however, appear in the most ancient inscriptions of Ceylon, which seem to testify that, as we might expect, it was a kind of Māgadhī which was employed in the propaganda of Piyadasi. The Sinhalese canon pretends to descend directly from it; in reality, an altogether different influence rules the language in which it is couched, — an influence probably emanating from the west of India. The Mixed Sanskr̥it of the Buddhists of the North-West is the Prākṛit orthography which was the most closely allied to Literary Sanskr̥it, and it was it which, in all likelihood, was the soonest fixed in a lasting tradition. It is very possible that Pāli owes something of its archaic character to this leaning towards etymological orthography of which Western India has furnished us with multiple proofs. The tradition of it must have been, to a certain degree, preserved by the sect to which we are to attribute the drawing up of the southern *Tripitaka*.

From this point of view there is one fact which seems to me to be sufficiently striking to deserve being mentioned here. Three provincial Prākṛits hold the place of honour in the grammars, the Mahārāṣṭrī, the Māgadhī, and the Saurasēṇī. It would give quite a false idea of the Prākṛit grammarians to imagine that they claimed, under these three names, to include all the principal families of the popular dialects. Their only aim was always practical utility, and we shall be in no danger of wronging them if we affirm that they never conceived the idea of a general and methodical classification of all the Prākṛit dialects. It is upon special conditions, local or historical, that the importance of these three dialects must be founded. Now, we learn from their origins, as indicated by their names, that they exactly correspond to the homes of the three systems of writing which the monuments allow us to descry in periods earlier than the grammatical one; the Mahārāṣṭrī to the Monumental Prākṛit of the West coast; the Māgadhī to the official orthography of Piyadasi, and the Saurasēṇī, the one which possesses the most archaic aspect, to the Sanskr̥itizing Prākṛit of Mathurā and the North-West. It seems that the more or less obscured recollections, the more or less interrupted perpetuation, of a tradition, founded on early attempts at writing, set in movement in these three homes, and at least facilitated the creation of literary dialects.

Whatever may be the value of this conjecture, one conclusion is certain. It is only in

the circumstance of an earlier tradition, local, religious or literary, kept up by means and under conditions which may have varied, that the grammatical reform, from which sprang the grammatical Prākṛits in the form in which we know them, can have been possible. I am here content with pointing out the fact in its general aspect. I have not set myself to approach the thorny questions of literary history which surround the peculiar origin of each of these dialects. I have at least wished to shew, while laying before the reader the proposition to which the facts of philology appear to me irresistibly to drive us, that as a whole it presents none of those insurmountable difficulties which a mind pre-possessed by different theories might expect. In concluding, I wish to remark that this necessary allowance of a previous tradition, is an important corrective to what might seem too positive in my statements regarding the final redaction of the Pāli or Prākṛit books. This reserve is indispensable. As for laying down the limits in each particular case, for accurately distinguishing between what is the work of the last editors, and what the inheritance of earlier tradition, such a task would be infinite. Perhaps we shall never be in a position to accomplish it in its entirety.

PART IV.

CONCLUSION.

The above observations have led me to touch on most of the more general problems which the linguistic history of ancient India presents. I cannot conclude without summing up the principal conclusions to which I have been conducted. They are, in several respects, in conflict with generally received ideas; but we must consider that, hitherto, the examination of these questions is, as is admitted by all, far from having ended in categorical results.¹⁴ Our knowledge on this subject is still too incomplete, too floating, to allow a little novelty to excite surprise or to justify distrust. I have dealt with one sole order of considerations, with arguments based on epigraphy and philology, the only ones which were called forth by the principal subject of this work. I consider that these arguments furnish my views with a sufficiently solid basis; and I have every confidence that proofs of other kinds will come to add themselves to mine, and to gradually confirm them. I shall not be charged, I think, with having disdained these other sources of information. I well know all their value. Even if it be not true, as I think it is, that the series of facts to which I have confined myself is the one most likely to lead us to decisive results, the other considerations would hardly come within the limits which have been laid down for me.

The principal literary dialects of ancient India are three in number; the Vedic language, Classical Sanskrit, and the group of Prākṛits. To these we must add that idiom which was in a way intermediate between Sanskrit and Prākṛit, for which I have proposed the name of *Mixed Sanskrit*.

1. So far as concerns the religious language of the Vēdas, the inscriptions of Piyadasi indirectly testify that it was, at the commencement of the 3rd century before our era, the object of a certain amount of culture, and that this culture was purely oral. That is a point which has been discussed in the preceding chapter.

2. As for Classical Sanskrit, its elaboration in the Brahmanical world, essentially based on the Vedic language, and on the school-language which might have formed, so to say, its prolongation, but enlivened by the first applications of writing to the popular dialects, should be placed about the 3rd century B. C., and the time following. Its public or official employment only commenced to spread abroad at the end of the first or at the commencement of the second century. No work of the classical literature can well be of earlier date than this epoch.

3. *Mixed Sanskrit* is only a manner of writing Prākṛit, consisting in going as near as possible to the orthography and the etymological forms known to the religious language.

¹⁴ I may refer the reader to the recent preface put by Prof. M. Müller at the commencement of his *Sanskrit Grammar for beginners*, p. v., and also to the preface of Prof. Whitney's *Sanskrit Grammar*.

Its use, born spontaneously with the first attempts at writing, continually developed, from the edicts of Kapur di Giri to the epigraphs of Mathurā. Used specially by the Buddhists, it stimulated the Brāhmins to the codification and diffusion of a more consequent, more refined language, profane Sanskrit. The coming into use of Literary Sanskrit marks its disappearance. It had, in the meantime, owing to its diffusion in the reign of Kanishka, assured its own survival, as a semi-literary dialect, in certain Buddhistic schools.

4. There remain the Prākrits. Popular in their origin, they have, in the form in which they have been employed, and which has come down to us, undergone a process of fixation, and of orthographical and grammatical reform. It is Sanskrit, and the exactly analogous process of learned labour to which Sanskrit owes its own existence, that inspired and guided this process. It cannot have taken place before the end of the 2nd century, and towards the end of the 4th we may suppose it a completed operation. None of the grammars which teach the literary Prākrits, and none of the books couched in one or other of these dialects, can, under its existing form, be of earlier date than this period. At the same time, it must be clearly understood that, far from excluding the existence of literary attempts and of a more ancient tradition, this theory supposes them as an indispensable preparation. It only excludes the idea of works having received a definitive form, of a canonically arrested tradition, the existence of which would have rendered all grammatical reform both superfluous and impossible.

It is needless to say that the correctness of the dates which I have just now mentioned depends, to a very high degree, on the correctness of the dates which we attributed to the inscriptions. The chronological series of the monuments appears to me to be well established, and if we suppose that some corrections in it are necessary, I do not imagine that they can be found to be of sufficient extent to modify the main lines which I have sketched out.

Everything, in this system, depends on, and follows, one natural and well-connected movement. The same tendencies, which we see at work in the earliest times, continue their action to the end. Throughout evolutions, each of which pre-supposes and engenders the next, the main motors remain identical. The continuation of the linguistic history during the period which we have surveyed, is the logical development of the tendencies which are revealed by the most ancient monuments. In this sense, this last chapter is closely connected with the direct object of our studies, the Inscriptions of Piyadasi.

FINIS.

THE DATES OF THE VAGHELA KINGS OF GUJARAT.

BY G. BÜHLER, PH.D., LL.D., C.I.E.

In my review of Dr. Bhāṇḍārkar's most valuable *Report on the Search for Sanskrit MSS.*, 1883-84, (*ante*, Vol. XVIII., p. 184ff.), I expressed strong doubts as to the correctness of the Vāghēlā dates, given in his new historical Fragment, p. 12, and by the Dharmasāgara in his *Pravachanaparīkṣā*, op. cit. p. 150. But I was unable to furnish strict historical proof that Dr. Bhāṇḍārkar's two authorities post-date the accession of Viśaladēva and of two of his successors by two years. Lately Rāo Sāheb D. P. Khakar, who has already furnished numerous valuable contributions to the history and archæology of Kachh, has kindly sent me an eye-copy of a mutilated inscription, which settles the question. It is incised on a Pāliā at Khōkhrā in Kachh, of which Rāo Sāheb Khakar gives the following account:—

"The Pāliā has a figure of a cow, feeding probably on Indian corn (maize) and suckling her calf. This Pāliā is stated to have been in the Fort of Bhadrēshwar. But a Thādējā daughter of the village of Khōkhrā, near Angār, having married in Bhadrēshwar, she thought that the cow might be worshipped in the Mahādēva temple in her father's village, and so she sent it there, where the inscription was all buried, and the cow was worshipped. When I learnt of it in Sam. 1939, I got with great difficulty the buried portion of the Pāliā excavated,

and found that the portion of it on which the object of the inscription was written, had been broken and lost, and after a year's inquiry I got no trace of it."

The fragment of the inscription, which appears to be written in the ordinary Dēvanāgarī characters of the thirteenth century, runs as follows:—

- 1 Ōm || Saṃvat 1332 varshē Mārga sudi 11 Śaṇāv=ady=ēha sṛi.
- 2 [ma*]d-Aṇahillapātakē samasta-rājāvalī[ya*]-samalaṃkṛita-mahārā-
- 3 jādhirāja-paramēśvara-paramabhaṭṭāraka-prō-[pran]ḍha-pratāma(pa)-Nārā-
- 4 ya[n-ā]vatāra-lakṣmī-svayamvara-mahārāja-śrī-Sāraṅgadīva-ka-
- 5 lyāṇa-vijaya-rājyē śrī-śrī-karaṇādō(dau) mahāmātya-śrī-Māva-
- 6 va-maham rūdhi-¹śrī-Kānhā samasta-vyāpārān paripamūṛi(tha)ya

The document belongs, therefore, to the reign of the Vāghēla king Sāraṅgadēva and mentions a minister, called Kānhā, i.e. Kṛishṇa. Its date Saṃvat, i.e., Vikrama-Saṃvat 1332, Mārga sudi 11 Śaṇau corresponds, according to Dr. Schram's Tables with Saturday, Dec. 1, 1275 A. D. The year was an expired year, both according to the northern and the southern mode of calculation.² The conflicting statements contained, the one in the *Vichāraśrēṇī* and Mr. Bhāṭ Dājī's *Paṭīāvalī*, and the other in Dr. Bhāṇḍārkar's fragment and the *Pravachanaparīkṣā*, are:—

Viśaladēva ruled	(I). V. S. 1300-1318;	(II). V. S. 1302-1320.
Arjunadēva ruled until	(I). V. S. 1331;	(II). V. S. 1333.
Sāraṅgadēva—	(I). V. S. 1353;	(II). V. S. 1353.

The date of Rāo Sāheb Khakar's new inscription proves that the Fragment and the *Pravachanaparīkṣā* place Sāraṅga's accession too late and do not deserve to be credited.

FOLKTALES OF HINDUSTAN.

BY WILLIAM CROOKE, C.S.

No. 2.—*The Parrot Prince and his Princess.*¹

Once upon a time there were two parrot kingdoms at Dehlī and Hansnā Vihār. The king of the former had a son and the king of the latter an only daughter. The subjects of both the kingdoms advised that the prince should take a wife and the princess a husband. So they both left their respective kingdoms in search of a partner. It so chanced that one night on their journey they alighted on the same tree, and the parrot prince hearing the leaves rattle enquired who was there. Each told the other who they were: and they were thinking of marrying together, when the prince said, "All women are faithless." "So are all men," said the princess. Thus they went on disputing and they finally agreed to refer the matter to the arbitration of the king of the country in which they happened to be.

So they both attended the king's court, and he said, "Produce your proofs."

Then the parrot princess said, — "Once upon a time seven sons of a king went out hunting and came upon a grand house in a jungle. Now this was the house of a demon (*dēv*), and the owner was away, leaving his six daughters and their handmaid in charge of his palace. The seven girls made friends with the seven princes, and they lived together for some time in the greatest happiness. Now the youngest prince had taken the handmaid as his partner, and one night he heard her say in her sleep, "What a misfortune has come on the wretched mother of these poor princes!" Next night she said the same words. So, when eating time came, the youngest prince refused to eat, unless the girl told him what she meant. After

¹ These letters cannot be correct.

² According to Professor Jacobi's new Tables, published in the *Epigraphica Indica*, the eleventh tithi ended on Saturday about 44 *ghatikās* after mean sunrise (Lankā).

¹ A folktale told by Dasrat Kharwār: the Kharwār is an aboriginal tribe in South Mirzāpur.

some hesitation she said — "The six girls, whom your brothers have taken to live with you, are the daughters of a demon, and he eats men. When he comes back he will devour all the six princes." "Is there any way of escape?" asked the prince. "Well!" she answered, "If you get hold of the horses of the demon and cross the ocean at a single jump you can escape.³ To-morrow make a pretence of going out to hunt and do this. They did so, and just as they were jumping across the ocean the demon rushed up and seized hold of the hind legs of the horse, on which the youngest prince was mounted. Then the handmaid called out to her lover "Take your sword and cut off the hind legs of the horse and you will escape." The young prince did so, and the demon was left behind, and they crossed the ocean in safety. When they got over, the daughters of the demon asked, "How did you manage to escape our father?" "By doing as the maid, who was with me, told me to do," replied the Prince, who could not keep the secret. Then the demon's daughters fell on the maid and tore her to pieces.

"By this," said the parrot princess, "you may learn that a man is never to be trusted."

"Now, what have you to say?" asked the king of the parrot prince.

"Well," he replied, "there was once a Rājā, who married a Rānī, and was bringing her home in a litter. By chance he got separated from his followers, and as they were going along the Rānī was suddenly taken sick and died. The Rājā took her corpse out of the litter and laid it on a river bank. Seeing this dreadful sight the bearers all ran away. The Rājā sat down by the corpse, and began to sing *Rām nāmī*. The God Mahādēō, who generally lives in solitary places, came up and asked the Rājā why he was lamenting. He told Mahādēō of the misfortune that had fallen on him. "If I bring the Rānī to life, will you surrender half your life?" Asked Mahādēō. "I agree," said the Rājā. So Mahādēō poured a little water on the Rānī out of his jar (*kaṃḍāl*) and the Rānī came to life again. Mahādēō went away and the Rājā and Rānī lay down to rest. While the Rājā slept a merchant (*mahājan*) came up with a horse laden with gold *mohars*, and the faithless Rānī abandoned the Rājā, who had saved her life, and ran away with the merchant."

"By this," said the parrot prince, "you may learn that all women are faithless."

Then the Rājā, who was trying the cause gave his decision — "Men as well as women," said he, "have their faults³ and the best thing you can do is to get married."

And so they were married and ruled their two parrot kingdoms for many a year in happiness.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

SUPERSTITIONS ABOUT ANIMALS IN MADRAS.

It is considered one of the greatest sins that a man can commit to kill a cow or taste its flesh; and it is also laid down that to eat curds, ght, and honey together is an equal sin.

When cattle cross your path it is considered a sin to pass through them. You must wait till the way is cleared and then go on.

When flying-foxes are flying about during the day, it is a sure sign of a shower of rain immediately.

About the Garudan or Royal Eagle or White

Kite there is a tradition among the Hindus of Southern India, that the bird serves as the *vdhānam* (vehicle) of Viṣṇu, and on Sundays he is supposed to ride on it in the morning. Hence the Brahmans especially anxiously look out for it on Sunday mornings, in order to pay their respects to Viṣṇu, through his sacred bird. On seeing it the ordinary Brāhman recites the following *śloka*, which he supposes to be Saṅskṛit :—

*Kumkumākṛita varṇaya
Kundhēndhu śavalayiccha
Viṣṇuvāhaṇa namasthūbhyāṃ
Pakṣhirāja śtūṇa namaha.*

³ [This is a very interesting variant of the notion of the difficulties that hedge round the folktale demon and life-index.—ED.]

⁴ [So sensible and moral an ending to a "tricks of women" story is well worthy of remark.—ED.]

Some of the Brahmins believe that if a person sees this bird flying in the sky on a Sunday morning, at any time before breakfast, he will attain fulfilment of all his enterprises during the ensuing week.

Among the lower castes of the Hindus the ceremonies have a different aspect. Their priests buy a small quantity of flesh from the *bādr* and bring it home. With this they make it a point to feed the bird, and wait outside their houses for it to fly over them. When they see one they throw up bits of the meat, inviting the bird to take them. When the bits are all taken they pay obeisance to the bird and take leave. After this they bathe and take their meals, considering themselves to have received the benediction of Vishnu.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

MALABAR COAST.

Unlucky Actions.

1. Never let any one tread on the nails of your fingers or toes, lest he become your enemy.
2. Never pour water into a *chunam* pouch at night.
3. Never take off the inner coating of the areca-nut at night.

4. Never look at the fox or jackal in the morning; but note the proverb:—“Did you wake this morning with a fox in your face?”

N. SANKUNNI WARIYAR.

MALABAR COAST.

Lucky Actions.

1. Always throw the outer rind of the areca-nut into the street, so that people walk over it.
2. Turn to the right when getting up in the morning from your bed.

N. SANKUNNI WARIYAR.

SPIRIT HAUNTS IN MADRAS.

Evil spirits seek always for their abode that portion of a tank or a river where someone has been drowned and lost his life, or the following trees:—

1. *Ficus Religiosa*, pipal, (*Arasu* in Tamil);
2. *Azadirachtā Indica*, Nim. (*Vēmbu* in Tamil);
3. Tamarind (*Puliyam* in Tamil).

Hence virgins, or pregnant women, and children, are usually warned not to approach these places at any time during the day or night.

K. SRIKANTALIYAR.

Ootacamund.

BOOK-NOTICE.

JOURNAL OF THE MAHA-BODHI SOCIETY. Edited by H. DHARMAPALA, Calcutta, May 1892.—No 1. Baptist Mission Press, for the Buddha Gya Mahabodhi Society.

The Buddha-Gaya Mahabodhi Society, or the Bud-Gaya¹ Society, for it is a little difficult to make out its title clearly from the publication before us was, we find, established at Colombo on May 31st, 1891, under the auspices of Colonel H. S. Olcott. This is good and also bad. Good because the Colonel has already shown that he can control a Society and a Journal which can live, and bad because he has also shown that his views of the Buddhist Religion are as bold as they are delightfully visionary. The complete and unconscious misapprehension of every aspect of the subject he affects to have deeply studied is indeed the most charming part of the addresses he delivers. He is always poetical and nearly always wrong in every view to which he gives expression. He is “chief adviser” of the new Society, and in the first number of its Journal

are many echoes of his ideas. There is the same magnificent disregard of actual facts, and the same enchanting inaccuracy as to details in historical references on every page, that have always distinguished the writers on Theosophy. Here is a fine sample:—

“It is only a baseless tradition that Buddhism was destroyed by the Aryans. As yet no evidence has been forthcoming to show that the vandalism was done by them. But, on the contrary, there are facts and historical data to prove conclusively that the catastrophe was accomplished by the Muhammedan (*sic*) invaders of India. The temples of Vishnu, Siva and other devatās (*sic*) did not escape the fire and sword of the devastating Moslem. The destruction of Buddhism dates from the time of the invasion of India by Muhamad (*sic*) of Ghazni.”

Could anything be more delightful than this? Just before the above passage we are told “that Buddhism was destroyed seven centuries ago in

¹ It is to be hoped that ‘Bud-Gaya’ will be dropped as hopelessly wrong etymologically.

India is beyond doubt." Muhamad (speaking under Col. Olcott's correction we understand that the conqueror's name was, however, Mahmūd) of Ghazni we thought lived nearer nine centuries than seven centuries ago. But then, two centuries of time are as nothing in the retrospect of a poet! And we are glad to hear, because it is news, that it was the wicked 'Muhammedan' (we follow the 'chiefly advised' writer in making 'Muhammedan' the correct adjectival form of 'Muhamad') who carried through the destruction of Buddhism in India from start to finish. A little lower down we learn how it was done:—

"From the tenth to the twelfth centuries a systematic vandalism of sacred shrines was carried on by the devastating hordes of Arabs under Muhammedan generals."

The armies of the Ghaznavi and Ghōri generals were, of course, all Arabs! We are learning quickly indeed;—but there is yet more to learn—much more than was ever dreamt of in our philosophy:—

"From the twelfth to the sixteenth century indigenous literature was not only not allowed to be cultivated, but every method was adopted to stamp out a national growth."

O shades of Akbar and Jahāngir and Dārā Shikōh! O Chand Bardāi! O Kabīr! O Gurū Nanak! O Tulsi Dās! O ye Mediæval Reformers! what say ye to this?

However, the 'Muhammedan' is evidently a red rag to the writers in the *Journal* of the Mahābōdhi Society, and it may be that their personal feelings have warped their sense of historical accuracy.

The *Journal* is severe on those who differ from its views. "Sciolists and superficial critics, failing to grasp the philosophy, and merely for the sake of notoriety, condemn Buddhism as atheistic." Granted for the sake of argument. Let us hear what the scientific and deep critic has to teach us—for we confess to being with the sciolists in this matter:—"The cherished gods of the Aryans, the mild Vishnu, the protecting Brahma, and the guarding Indra (the differentiation between 'protecting' and 'guarding' is distinctly good), besides most of the *devas* and *devatīs* have not been relegated into the land of myths. They have a niche in the pantheon of gods in the Buddhist system."

"The pantheon of gods in the Buddhist system" exhibits a truly scientific appreciation of the Buddhist philosophy no doubt, but we shall remain 'sciolists' nevertheless.

Passing by the muddling together of '*devas* and *devatīs*', as exhibited in the extracts already

quoted, we have to note a peculiarity in the *Journal*, which is typical of the theosophic variety of the scientific man. Onter sciolists, who lay claim to some knowledge of Indian languages, have a habit, when transliterating, of diacritically marking certain letters to show their form in the original. The scientific theosophist always tries to do the same, and the result is invariably startling. We have fine specimens before us now, e.g., Vaishnāva, Māgadha (the country), Kusināgara, Priyadāsi (this is most excellent, for it has the advantage of being neither Pāli nor Sāṁskṛit), and so on. And then again, if you write Śiva and Śaiva (p. 8), why write Sri and Sankarāchārya.

If the Mahābōdhi Society's views of things ancient are astonishing, its ideas on contemporary movements are equally so:—

"The intellect of the educated has reached its ultimate development, and it is impossible to go back to the dualistic stage of religion, when scientific monism is gaining ground among the highest intellects of Europe and America. This scientific monism is the Advaita Philosophy of ancient India. This scientific and realistic monism in all its comprehensiveness was promulgated by Gautama Buddha twenty-five centuries ago."

This is well conceived, but the following is better from the pen of the 'chiefly advising' Colonel himself:—

"Western dogmatism cannot stand before it (the Arya Dharma of Śakya Muni, mis-called 'Buddhism'). Western men of light and learning welcome it, the weary-souled begin to hail it with enthusiasm. The two chief reviving agencies, the two channels through which it is flowing, are a book and a Society—the 'Light of Asia' and the Theosophical Society. Ten years hence Buddhism will have gained an unshakable foothold throughout Christendom."

This is enough for us! When Western men of light and learning accept the *Light of Asia* as a true exposition of Buddhism the Christian will deserve to go down before the Buddhist.

We have thus dwelt on the errors in the *Journal* of the Mahābōdhi Society at length, because we fully sympathise with the general aims of the Society, which are apparently to protect the remains at Buddh-Gayā from further neglect, to secure the funds of the temple from further misappropriation, and to ensure the preservation of Buddhist literature. The sooner therefore the conductors of the *Journal* of the Society cease to publish downright nonsense the sooner will they secure respect towards themselves, and general sympathy with their laudable objects.

TAMIL HISTORICAL TEXTS.

BY V. KANAKASABHAI PILLAI, B.A., B.L.

No. 3.—AN INSCRIPTION OF KULOTTUNGA-CHOLA.¹

THE inscription, which I now publish, is on the southern wall of the **Bhaktavatsalasvāmin temple at Tirukkalukkunram** in the Chingleput District, Madras Presidency. It was copied by me on the spot, but I have not been able to make out a correct reading of the whole of the inscription, as it is much faded and in some parts illegible. It is in Tamil characters of the Eleventh Century A.D. The first part of it is a eulogy on the reigning king, and is in verse in High Tamil; the latter part is in ordinary prose and records the purchase of a piece of land by the temple authorities. The original text of the poetical portion appears to have been composed by a writer well versed in classical Tamil. It has been engraved, however, either very carelessly or by ignorant hands; even common words have been misspelt, and no distinguishing mark has been made to denote the end or commencement of each line of the verse portion. The language being High Tamil, and the characters somewhat indistinct, the deciphering of this part of the inscription would have been impossible, if I had not fortunately had with me copies of inscriptions, which I had taken from other temples in the Tamil country. Three of these, which I detail below, have been of much use to me in reading this text.

INSCRIPTION No. 1.

An inscription on the northern side of the *Vimāna* of the temple dedicated to **Paṇḍava-datta-Perumāḷ** at **Kāñchipuram**, which commences with the first 25 lines of the present text, and continues as follows:—

Text.

Nan maṇi āramum tiruppu-yattalaṅkalum pōla vīramum tiyākamum viḷaṅka pārmicha mēvalar vaṇaṅka vīra chimmāchanattu puvanamuḷutudaiyāḷodum vīṇṇiruntaruliya Kōrāja-kēsarivarṃmarāna Uḍaiyār sri-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēvarkku yāṇḍu aṇḍhāvatu

Translation.

In the fifth year of the lord **sri-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva**, *alias* **Kō-Bājakēsarivarman**, (here enter the translation of the first 25 lines) whose valour and munificence shone like the necklace of faultless gems and the garland of flowers on his shapely shoulders; who deigned to sit on the throne of heroes with the goddess Earth, while his enemies bowed down to the ground before him.

INSCRIPTION No. 2.

An inscription in very clear characters, on the western wall of the **Saiva temple at Kilpaḷuvūr** in the Trichinopoly District, which begins with the same words as in the present text up to the end of the 62nd line, and continues as follows:—

Text.

Neritorum nilaikaḷ iddaruḷi tīraḷ koḷ vīra simhāsana vēddaruḷi poṇkoḷiyāramum tiruppu-yattalaṅkalum pōla vīramum tiyākamum viḷaṅka pārmichai mēvalar vaṇaṅka vīra simhāsanaattu avanimuḷutudaiyāḷodum vīṇṇiruntaruliya Kōrājākēsarivarṃmarāna Tiripuvanachakkara-varttikaḷ sri-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēvarkku yāṇḍu irupatāvatu

Translation.

In the twentieth year of the emperor of the three worlds, **sri-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva**, *alias* **Kō-Bājakēsarivarman**, (here enter the translation of the first 62 lines) who erected on all the public paths boundary-marks (of his territories) and obtained the throne of mighty heroes; whose valour and munificence shone like the resplendent necklace and the garland of flowers on his sacred shoulders; who was pleased to sit on the throne of heroes with the goddess Earth, while his enemies bowed down to the ground before him.

¹ [The spelling of vernacular words in the English portion of this paper has been altered in accordance with the system followed in this *Journal*. The Tamil texts have been left intact, as no facsimiles were to hand.—ED.]

INSCRIPTION No. 3.

An inscription on the eastern wall of the Saiva temple at Tiruvīḍaimarudūr in the Tanjore District, which begins with the first 66 lines of the text and proceeds as follows :—

Text.

Chivanidattumaiyena **Tinachintāmaṇi** puvanamuḷutudaiyāḷodum kaikaivīṇṇiruntēna mai kaiyar tilatam **Ēlīchaivallapi** irēḷulakamudaiyāḷ vāḷiyumalarntinitiruppa ūḷiyum tirumālakat-tuppiriyātena tirumakaḷ tikaḷḷena **Tiyākavalli** taruma ulakudaiyāḷiruppa * * * puva-namuḷutudaiyāḷodum vīṇṇiruntaruḷiya **Kōvirājakēsarivarmanmarāna Chakkaravarttikaḷ** **śrī-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēvarkku** yāṇḍu 26vatu nāḷ nārreḷupattiraṇḍinil

Translation.

On the 172nd day of the 26th year of the emperor **śrī-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva**, *alias* **Kō-Bajakēsarivarmaṇ**, (here enter the translation of the first 66 lines) who, worshipped by the whole world, was pleased to sit in state with **Dinachintāmaṇi**, the mistress of the whole world, like Siva with Umā, and with **Ēlīsaivallaḍḍi**, the mistress of the fourteen worlds, the most beauteous amongst women, like Gaṅgā with Umā, and with **Tyāgavalli**, the charitable mistress of the world, like Lakshmi who is ever inseparable from Viṣṇu, and with the goddess Earth.

Comparing the above three inscriptions with that which is the subject of this paper, and which is dated "in the 42nd year of the emperor **śrī-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva**," it will be seen that it is beyond doubt that all the four refer to the same sovereign, because his name is given as **Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷa** in all of them, and the events of his reign mentioned in the earlier inscriptions are repeated in the very same words in the later. Considering the facts that those inscriptions are found in places very distant from each other, and that the same verses have been used for describing the reigning king, it would appear that it was the custom during this period to adopt a prescribed form of preamble in drawing up any important deed; and as that form was in verse, it is most probable that it was composed by a poet of the king's court and circulated under royal sanction. This is borne out by epigraphical records of other **Chōḷa** kings; for instance, the inscriptions of **Bajarāja-Chōḷa** begin with the words "Tirumakaḷ pōla perunilachchelvium"; those of **Vikrama-Chōḷa** commence "Pūmālai milaintu ponmālai tikaḷa"; those of **Rajēndra-Chōḷa** open with the verse "Tiru manni vaḷara irunila-maḍantaivum."

The four inscriptions of **Kulōttuṅga** noticed in this paper furnish a short history of his life. While he was **Yuvarāja**, he first distinguished himself by storming **Chakkarakōṭṭam**. He surprised the enemy there and captured a number of elephants, but left no permanent trace of his conquest. Then he had to fight against the kings of **Kuntala**, that is the Western **Chālukyas**. About this time the **Chōḷa** country came to be without a king, and he marched southwards, and by right of inheritance ascended the throne of the **Chōḷas**. Before the end of the fifth year after his accession he vanquished the Southern or **Pāṇḍya** king, who was either taken prisoner, or killed in battle; for the inscriptions state that his head lay, pecked by eagles, outside the **Chōḷa** capital. **Vikkilaṇ**, who is doubtless the Western **Chālukya** **Vikramāditya VI.**, then invaded the **Chōḷa** territory, but had to retreat before the superior forces of the **Chōḷas**, and was hotly pursued from **Naṅgali** in the Mysore province to **Maṇalūr** on the banks of the **Tuṅgabhadra**, where he crossed the river and sought safety within his own dominions. An expedition towards the west was next conducted by **Kulōttuṅga** in person, and **Koṅgumaṇḍalam** was subjugated. Two expeditions were also sent to **Singhaḷam**, apparently with no great results.² Then he wished to conquer the **Pāṇḍimaṇḍalam**, and equipped a large army. After the death of the **Pāṇḍya** king above alluded to, his kingdom evidently became dismembered, and five **Pāṇḍya** princes, who were in power, fled in dismay before the **Chōḷa** forces, and sought refuge in

² These were most probably the two **Chōḷa** invasions mentioned in the *Mahāvaṃsa* (chap. lviii.) as having occurred during the early part of the reign of **Vijayabāhu**.

inaccessible jungles. The whole of the Pāṇḍya country as far as Cape Comorin and Kōṭṭāru was annexed to the Chōḷa empire. Then the pearl fisheries in the Gulf of Manaar and the wild elephants on the Western Ghāts became the property of Kulōttuṅga before the close of the 20th year of his reign. It was, I believe, after this important event that he proclaimed himself "emperor of the three worlds;" for in the inscription No. 1 his name is given as "Uḍaiyār śrī-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷa-dēva," whereas in No. 2 it is "Tribhuvanachakravartigaḷ śrī-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva." Within six years afterwards the Kalingamaṇḍalam was conquered; but from the 26th to the 42nd year the empire seems to have enjoyed peace, no mention being made of any wars in subsequent inscriptions. Three of Kulōttuṅga's queens are named in the inscription No. 3, *viz.* Dīnachintāmaṇi, Ēḷisaivallabhi and Tyāgavallī; but only the last two are mentioned in the text, which forms the subject of this paper.

No era or astronomical day is given in the inscriptions to enable us to ascertain the period of the king's reign; but from the leading events mentioned in them, it is certain that he is identical with the Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷa of the Kalingattu Paraṇi. The poem speaks of his early exploits at Chakkarakkōttam (canto x. stanza 23), the anarchy in the Chōḷa country (x. 26), his accession to the Chōḷa kingdom (x. 32), the defeat of the five Pāṇḍya princes (xi. 69), the battles on the banks of the Tuṅgabhadra (iv. 7) and at Maṇalūr (xiii. 93), the conquest of the Kalingamaṇḍalam (xii. 68), and the queen Tyāgavallī (x. 55). All these particulars occur in the inscription also. I have in my article on the *Kalingattu Paraṇi*³ identified the Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷa of that poem with the first Eastern Chalukya king of the same name. And as it appears from inscriptions in the Telugu country that he bore the name of Rājendra-Chōḷa before he acceded to the Chōḷa kingdom, there is no doubt that he is also that "Rājiga, the lord of Vēṅgi," who, according to the *Vikramāṅkadēvacharita*,⁴ took possession of the throne of Kāñchi on the death of the Chōḷa king. From the Chellūr grant we learn that Kulōttuṅga's third son, Vīra-Chōḷa-dēva, was installed as viceroy of Vēṅgi in A.D. 1078, and that before him, Kulōttuṅga's second son, Rājarāja II., held charge of Vēṅgi for one year, and his uncle, Vijayāditya, for fifteen years. It follows, therefore, that Kulōttuṅga succeeded to the crown of Vēṅgi in A.D. 1063.⁵ But there is no record to show when he ascended the Chōḷa throne. From Tamil inscriptions I find that a Chōḷa king named Vīra-Rājendradēva, *alias* Kō-Parakēsarivarman, claims to have "bestowed the Vēṅgiṁḍalam on Vijayāditya who had bowed at his feet, conquered Kaḍāram for another king who had besought his assistance, forced Sōmēśvara to give up the Kannaradēsam and drove him out of that country, and reduced Irattapaḍi for Vikramāditya who had sought refuge at his feet." The kings alluded to appear to be Vijayāditya VII., viceroy of Vēṅgi (A.D. 1063—1077), the Western Chālukya Sōmēśvara II. (A.D. 1069-1076), and Vikramāditya VI. (A.D. 1076—1127). That Vijayāditya was in danger of being deprived of his power by the Chōḷas, is also evident from one of the Gaṅga grants, in which it is stated that, "when Vijayāditya, beginning to grow old, left the country of Vēṅgi, as if he were the sun leaving the sky, and was about to sink in the great ocean of the Chōḷas," Rājarāja of Kalinganagara (A.D. 1071—1078) "caused him to enjoy prosperity for a long time in the western region."⁶ The above records seem to indicate that Vīra-Rājendra, *alias* Kō-Parakēsarivarman, was the immediate predecessor of Kulōttuṅga on the Chōḷa throne, was contemporary with the Western Chālukya Sōmēśvara II., and helped his younger brother, Vikramāditya in wresting from him a portion of the Chālukya dominions; also that Kulōttuṅga did not take possession of the Chōḷa kingdom till about A.D. 1071. This is confirmed by the *Vikramāṅkadēvacharita*, which states that "the lord of Vēṅgi" seized the Chōḷa sovereignty some time after the death of Sōmēśvara I. which occurred in A.D. 1069, and before Sōmēśvara II. was taken prisoner by Vikramāditya VI. in A.D. 1076. If Kulōttuṅga had reckoned his regnal years from the day of his accession to the throne of Vēṅgi, the date of the following inscription, which is in the 42nd year of his reign, would fall in A.D. 1105.

³ *ante*, Vol. XIX. p. 388.⁴ Dr. Bühler's edition, chap. vi. verse 26.⁵ Dr. Hultzsch's *South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. I. pp. 49-52.⁶ See Dr. Fleet's article on the Eastern Chalukya Chronology, *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 276.

The concluding portion of the inscription, which is in prose, records a deed of sale, executed by the Brâhman proprietors of a village named *Vaṇavaṇmahādēvichaturvêdimangalam* in *Kumilinaṇḍu* in *Āmūr-kōṭṭam* in *Jayaṅkoṇḍachōlamanḍalam*. The property sold was a portion of the village, which was intended to be used as garden land for the *Maṭha* of *Naminandi* *Adigaḷ* attached to the *Saiva* temple at *Tirukkaḷukkunṇam*. *Naminandi* is the name of one of the 63 devotees of *Siva*, an account of whose lives is given in the Tamil *Periyapurāṇam*, and the *Maṭha* was probably founded by him or by his descendants in his memory. The fact that the proprietors of the village met together in a *Mahāsabhā* or great assembly, and executed this deed of sale, is evidence of the ancient system of land tenure peculiar to the Dravidian people, under which the residents of each village were the common proprietors of all those parts of the village, which were not appropriated to any individual. Two taxes are mentioned, the *peruvāram* (great share) and *śilavuvāri* (expenditure tax).⁷ The first is the king's share, which is generally one-sixth of the produce; the second appears to be a local cess, levied to meet expenses incurred in the repair to tanks &c. in the village.

TEXT.

Svasti Sṛī !

- Pukaḷ chūḷṇta puṇari akaḷ chūḷṇta puviyil
 Ponnēmi aḷavum tannēmi nadappa
 Viḷaṅku chaya makalai iḷaṅkōpparuvattu
 Ohakkarakkōddattu vikkiramattoḷilāl
- (5) Putu maṇam puṇarntu mata varai iḍdam
 Vayir ākarattu vāri ayil munai
 Kuntaḷa arachar tantaḷam iriya
 Vāḷ uṇai kaḷittu tōḷ vali kāddi
 Pōrppari nadatti kīrttiyai nīṇutti
- (10) Vada tichai vākai chūḍi ten tichai
 Tēmaru kamala pūmakal potumaiyum
 Ponni ādaiyum nannilappāvai
 Tanimaiyum tavira vantu punitaru
 Tiru maṇi makudam urimaiyil chūḍi
- (15) Tannadi irandum tada mudiyāka
 Tonnaḷa vēntar chūḍa munnai
 Manu vāṇu peruka Kali yāṇu vaṇappa
 Cheṅkōḷ tichai toṇum chella veṅkudai
 Irunila viḷākam eṅkaṇum tanatu
- (20) Tiru nīḷa veṇṇilā tikaḷa
 Oru tani mēruvil puli viḷaiyāda
 Āḷ kadal tivāntatarṭtu pūpālar
 Tiṇai vidu kuṇcharam muṇai muṇai nīṇpa
 Viḷaṅkiya Tēnnavan karuntalai paruntalaḷit
- (25) Tidattan ponnakar puṇattidai kidappa
 * * * * *
- Cholletir kōḍirṇallatu tankai
 Villetir kōḍā Vikkilan kallatar
 Naṅkili todaṅki Maṇalūr naduvin
- (30) Tuṅkapattirai puka turatti eṅkaṇum
 Padḍa veṅkaḷiṇum kedda tan mānamum
 Kūriya vīramum * * *
 Ēriṇa malaikaḷum mutuku neḷippa
 Iḷinta natikaḷum ārudaintōḍa

⁷ [Compare *śil-vāri* *peru-vāri*, 'the small tax (and) the large tax,' in Dr. Hultzsch's *South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. I. p. 87, text line 6.]

- (35) **Vīṭiṇa** kadalkaḷum talai virittalamara
 Kudatichai * * *
 Tannāḷukantu tānum tānaiyum
 * * * *
 * * * *
- (40) Cheyapperuntiruvum vāḷā oṅkaṇ
 Madantaiyar iddamum mīḷātu kodutta
 Veṅkari niraiyum **Koṅkumaṇḍalamum**
Sinkaḷam ennum paraṇi iraṇḍum
 Iruvichai kaikoṇḍu iṇaiviya pukaḷodu
- (45) **Paṇḍimaṇḍalaṇ** kola tiruvuḷattadaittu
 Vempari talaṅkaḷum poru kari kulaṅkaḷum
 Tantira vāriyum udaittāy vantu
 Vada kadāl ten kadāl padarvatu pōla
 Tan peruṇchēnaiyai ēvi
- (50) **Paṇḍhavar** aivarum poruta pōrkaḷattu
 Añchi veruvi neḷittōdi
 Araṇena pukka kādarattudaittu
 Maṇṇavar tammai vanachararākki
 Oṇṇaiveṇchuram ēṇṇikoṇṇa
- (55) Vichaiyat tampam tichai toṇum niṇutti
 Muttin Chīḷāpamum muttamiḷ **Potiyilum**
 Matta veṅkari padum maiyya **Chaiyyamum**
Kanniyum kaikkoṇḍ aruḷittennāḍ
 Ellaikāddi kudamalai nāḍḍuḷaracher
- (60) Ellām tani vichum pēṇa
 * * * *
 Kuṇṇakalar kulaiya Kōttār uḷpada
 Neṇṇitoṇum nilaikaḷiddaruḷi maṇṇipunal
Kaliṅgamaṇḍalamum kaippaduttaruḷi³
- (65) Tīṇal koḷāramum tiruppuṇyattalaṅkaḷum pōla
 Vīramum tiyākamum vilāṅkappārtola
 Chivanidattumaiyena **Tiyākavalli**
 Aṇani muḷutudaiyāḷudan iruppa, avaḷudan
 Kankai vīṇṇiruntena maṅkaiyar tilatam
- (70) **Ēḷichai**vallapi ēḷṇalukam udaiyāḷ
 Vāḷirum ponninitiruppa
 Āḷichāḷavani muḷutudaiyāḷodum

³ I give below the different readings in the preambles of the four inscriptions of Kalōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva which I have examined. A stands for the inscription at Kāñchīpuram, B for that at Kīḷpaḷuvār, C for Tiruvīḍaimarudūr and D for Tirukkalukkupam.

Line 2. A has *nadatti* for *naḍappa*.

Line 5. A has *vankaḷiru* for *matavarai*. B and C have *matuvarai* for *matavarai*.

Line 12. A has *ponnaṇḍaiyūm* for *ponniḍaiyūm*.

Line 13. A and D have *tavirtu* for *tavira vantu*.

Line 16. A has *ponni* for *munnai*.

Line 20. B has *tirumilal* *veṅkudai* for *tirumilal*.

Line 23. A has *kalañchēr kaḷiru* for *kuñcharam*. B has *kalañcheṇṇiraḷu* for *kuñcharam*. C has *kalañchori kaḷiru* for *kuñcharam*.

Line 42. B & C. have *kaṇka* for *koṅku*.

Line 57. B has *teyva* for *chayya*.

Line 59. B has *ēval* for *ellai*.

Lines 63 & 64. D has *appulattalaṅkaḷum koṅkumandalamum* for *maṇṇipunal kaliṅka mandalamum*.

Virachimmachanattu viṣṭiruntaruḷiya Chakkaravarttikal sri-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēvar-
kku yāndu 42vatu Jayaṅkoṇḍachōḷamaṇḍalattu Āmūrkōddattu Kumiṇaddu Vāna-
vanmahādēvichaturvēdamaṅkalattu makāchapaiyōm nilavilai āvaṇakkaiyeḷuttu. Kaḷattur-
Kumiṇaddu Ulakāṇta-Chōḷapuramana Chembian-Tirukkaḷukkuṇṇattu udaiyār
tirukkaḷukkuṇṇamudaiya Mahādēvar kōvil Chantiā Chandesvaradēvarukku nāṅkal mada puṇ-
māka vittukkudutta nilamāvatu : eṅkaḷūr mēlmidāni⁹ Kiraippākkam kādukaḷ veddi kaddai
paṇittu tiruttikkōḷvātāka kudutta nilattukku kiḷpārkellai Urōmāttellai uṇavum, tenpār-
kellai Tāḷaivēddellai uṇavum, mēlpārkellai Vikāmbattellai uṇavum, vadapārkellai Taṇdu-
raillai uṇavum, innānkellaikkudpadda nīrnilamum punchai nilamum mēnōkkina maraṇum
kiḷ nōkkinakiṇarum ivvūr madaiṇilākattirakkum Naminanti Adikaḷ Madattukkum madap-
puṇmāka nāṅkaḷ iṇai ilichchi vittukkudutta vilaiyāka nāṅkaḷ kaikkōṇḍa achai neṇkāchu pattum
kaivilai aṇa vittu poruḷarakaikkōṇḍu vilai āvaṇam cheytu kuduttōm. Mahā sapai ōm innila-
ttukku vanta chilavu vari peruvāram eppēppaddatum nāṅkaḷ iṇukkakkadavōmā kavum. Iṇai
ilichchi vittukkuduttōm. Chapaikku chamainta tārumavar Edduvamavan Ādittan Paṇapāḷa-
paddaṇum, Mappirāra Kumārachuvāmikkirāmalittanum, Uṇuppuḍuttūḷāḷappaddaṇum, Padma-
purattu Sri Ranganātapaddaṇum, Appaddūr Chaṅkaranaṇāyaṇapaddaṇum, Kāvicharikkilḷai
Tantikānavittanum, Kiraṇchikoṇ Tākkirānavittanum, ivvānaivarōm chantrātitta varaikkum
chilālēkai paṇṇikoduttōm. Mahāsabhaiōm. Ippadikku iṇai Vānavanmahādēvi-udaiyaṇ
Chelvan Kumaran eḷuttu Āmūrkōddattu.

TRANSLATION.

Health and Wealth ! In the 42nd year of the emperor sri-Kulōttuṅga-Chōḷadēva,
who, in his youth, first embraced the goddess of victory by his heroic deeds at Chakkara-
kōṭṭam, so that his empire on this earth, which is girt by the glorious ocean, may extend up
to the golden mountain (Mēru) ; who, by his prowess, captured a multitude of rutting
elephants, and routed the forces of the kings of Kuntala at the point of his lance ; who
leading his troops of horse and unsheathing his sword, displayed the power of his arm and
established his fame by his victories in the northern countries, and, coming southwards, espoused
the goddess of the honeyed lotus flower (Lakṣmī), and Poṇṇi (Kāviri), and the good lady
Earth, who was without a consort, and by right of inheritance assumed the sacred and illustrious
diadem (of the Chōḷas) ; whose pair of feet served as a broad crown to the ancient kings of
this earth ; who wielded his sceptre with such justice in all directions (in his dominions) that
the rules of the ancient Manu prevailed and the river Kali (evil) was dried up ; whose white
umbrella shone like the moon over all the wide world ; whose tiger (banner) played (in the
breeze) on Mēru, without a rival ; the elephants given in tribute to whom, by the kings of
remote islands in the deep ocean, stood in many a row ; outside whose golden town, the black
head of the Tēnṇavan (Southern or Pāṇḍya king) lay pecked by eagles ; * * * * *
who drove from Nāṅgili of rocky roads Vikkilāṇ, that never bent his bow except on a foe who
had failed in paying him due respect, and forced him to enter the Tūṅgabhadra at Maṇalūr,
abandoning his elephants which lay wounded on all sides, and bringing disgrace on his fair
fame and boasted valour ; who, with his army, commencing his march towards the west, on
an auspicious day, caused the mountains to bend their backs, the rivers to forsake their beds,
and the Viḷiṇa seas to be stirred and agitated * * * * *
and seized the great goddess of victory, beves of bright-eyed women, and whole columns of
fierce elephants, which the enemy were unable to save, and the Koṅgumaṇḍalam ; whose fame
was augmented by two campaigns in Singhaḷam ; who, desirous of conquering the Pāṇḍimaṇḍa-
lam, directed his vast armies, which, with hosts of generals, squadrons of fleet horses and battle-
elephants, resembled the northern sea rushing to join the southern ocean, and when the five
Pāṇḍyas fled in terror from the battle-field and sought refuge in the jungles, cleared those
jungles and converted them into villages and made them (the Pāṇḍyas) lead the life of woodmen
in a dreary wilderness, and planted pillars of victory on every side ; who took possession of the

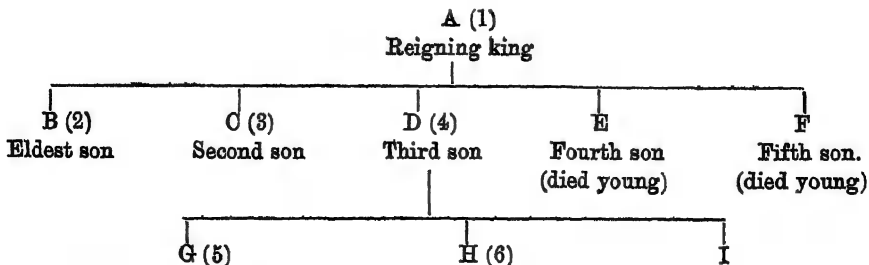
⁹ [Read mēl-piḍḍai.]

pearl fisheries, and Podiyam, where flourished the three kinds of Tamil (literature), and the mid Sahya hills (Western Ghâts), where huge wild elephants are captured, and Kanni (Cape Comorin), and fixed the limits of the Southern (Pāṇḍya) land; who sent to the upper world all the kings of the western hilly country * * * and, scattering his enemies, erected on all the public paths boundary-marks (of his territories) including Kōṭṭaru; who conquered the Kalingamaṇḍalam of embanked floods; whose valour and munificence shone like the gorgeous necklace and the garland of flowers on his shapely shoulders; who, worshipped by the whole world, deigned to sit on the throne of heroes with Tyāgavallī, the mistress of the whole world, like Siva with Umā, and with Ēṭisaivallabhi, the mistress of the seven worlds, the most beauteous amongst women, like Gaṅgā with Umā, and with the goddess Earth, — the deed in writing of a sale of land by the great assembly of Vāṇavaṇmahādēvi-chaturvēdimāṅgalam in Kumilinaḍu in Āmūr-kōṭṭam in Jayaṅkonḍachōḷamaṇḍalam. The land that we have sold and given, to be used as a garden for a Maṭha, to Chantiā¹⁰ Chaṇḍēśvaradēva of the temple of our lord Mahādēva of Tirukkaḷukkunṇam in Sembiyaṇ-Tirukkaḷukkunṇam, otherwise known as Ulagaṇḍa-Chōḷapuram, in Kaḷattūr-Kumilinaḍu, is as follows: Of the land which we have given in Kīraippākkam [P] [a western hamlet] of our village, to be improved by cutting down the jungle and by removing the stumps of trees, the eastern boundary is Urōmāttu [P], the southern boundary is Tāḷai-vēṭṭu [P], the western boundary is Viḡāmbam [P], the northern boundary is Taṇḍurai [P]. Within these four limits, the wet land and dry land, the trees overground and the wells underground, we have sold to be used as a garden land for the Naminandi-Aḍigaḷ-Maṭha in the maḍai-viḷāṅai of this town, exempt from taxes, and we have received as the price *achaṇai*¹¹ *kāṣu* ten. We have sold (the land and all our rights thereto) completely, and, having received the whole of the price, we have executed this deed of sale. We, the great assembly are bound to pay the *peruvāram*, the *śilavuvāri*, and all other taxes that may be imposed on this land. Exempt from all taxes we have given it. The representatives of this assembly are:¹² We all have had this deed of sale engraved, so that it may last as long as the sun and moon exist. We, the great assembly. This is the writing of Vāṇavaṇmahādēvi-udaiyaṇ Selvaṇ Kumāraṇ of Āmūr-kōṭṭam.

THE ORDER OF SUCCESSION IN THE ALOMPRA DYNASTY OF BURMA.

BY MAJOR R. C. TEMPLE.

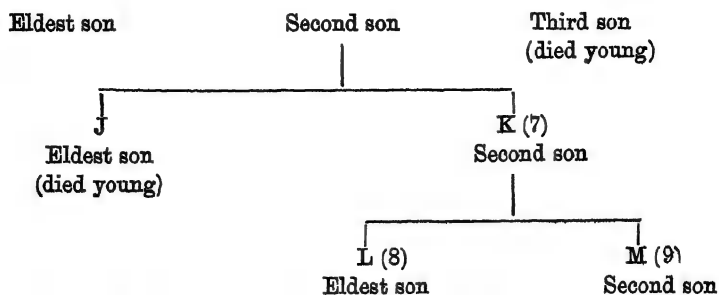
In Vol. XX. pp. 422-423, *ante*, reference was made to a statement that the rule of succession in the Manipur State was, that all the brothers of the reigning king succeeded by seniority before his sons; failing brothers the king's sons succeeded in turn. The line of succession would therefore run thus:—The living brothers in order of seniority, then the sons of the last brother in order of seniority. The tree of succession might in fact be as follows:—



¹⁰ [Read *Ādidda* P.]

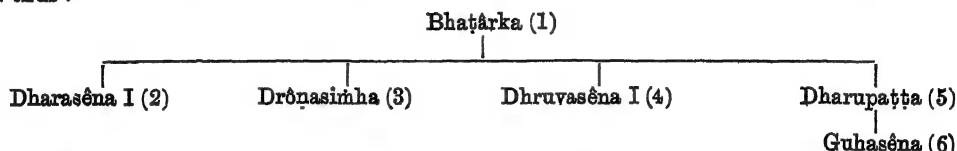
¹¹ [Should the two preceding words be a misreading of *kāṣu* 10 P.]

¹² [The names of these people are omitted in the translation, as their spelling is very uncertain. Each of them has either the attribute *bhaṭṭa* or *kramaviḍi*.]



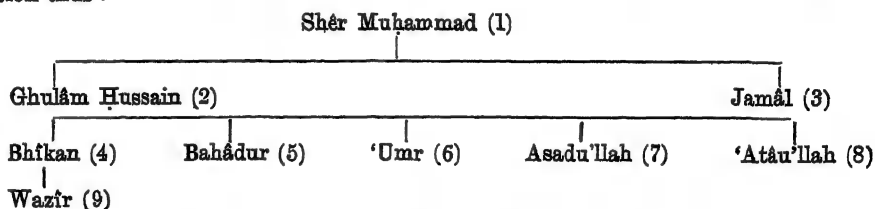
The points to note in the succession are: — (1) the father must, if possible, actually have been king; (2) brothers must succeed before sons. The next heir by analogy, failing brothers and sons, would be the eldest surviving son of the king before the deceased. *E.g.*, in the above tree, if king **M** had no sons or brothers, then the sons of king **L** would succeed in turn.

This custom is evidently widely spread over India and Burma, for (*loc. cit.* and *ante*, Vol. XV. p. 273) it has been already shown in this *Journal* that a part of the **Valabhi** succession ran thus: —



The **Genealogies of the Eastern and Western Chalukya Dynasties** (*ante*, Vol. XX. p. 283, also p. 422, and Fleet's *Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts*, pp. 18-19) give the succession of brothers before sons in several instances; notably in the years between 633 and 663 A.D., and between 696 and 709 A.D. and between Saka 930 and 964.

The **Genealogy of the Mâlâr-Kôṭlâ State** (*ante*, Vol. XVIII. pp. 328—330) gives parts of the succession thus: —



Properly speaking 'Atâu'llah's son should have succeeded, and when Wazîr's line failed a successor was found in Ibrâhim 'Alî, (the present ruler), the great-grandson of 'Atâu'llah.

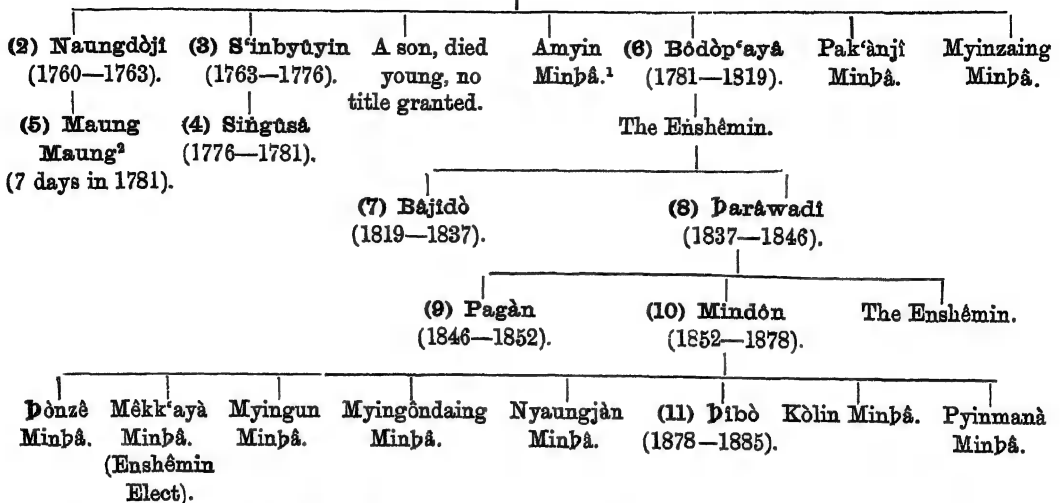
Throughout the **Shân States** (*ante*, pp. 119—120) the rule of succession is brothers before sons in order of seniority.

There are three disturbing elements in the rule, however, which must always be taken into consideration in its application: — (1) where the ruler has a multiplicity of wives, there must always be a difficulty in determining seniority; (2) in most Oriental States might is right and that heir succeeds, who is, for any reason, the most powerful; and (3) the temptation, seldom withstood, to the *de facto* ruler to oust his brothers in favour of his sons. As a rule, it may be said that every brother and every son looks upon himself as the possible heir, and the actual succession frequently falls to him, who finally succeeds in the struggle for the throne on the king's death.

I give below the **Genealogy of the Alompra (Alaungp'ayâ) Dynasty of Burma**, as illustrating the persistency of this peculiar law of succession and also the vicissitudes to which it is liable in practical application.

THE ALOMPRA DYNASTY OF BURMA (1753—1885 A. D.)

(1) Alaungp'ayā (1753—1760).



With reference to the above table the following remarks are applicable in the present connection. It is commonly said in Burmese *Yāsawins* (*Rājavanśas*), or Histories, that the reason why Alaungp'ayā's sons succeeded him in turn is, that he expressed a dying wish to that effect.³ I believe, however, that, whether he did so or not, the dynasty really followed what was felt to be the ancient and appropriate rule, and that the succession was accepted by the Court and people as the customary one.

Alaungp'ayā left seven sons, one of whom died as a child before the time came to give him a title,⁴ but all the rest grew to manhood and to be political forces in the country. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Naungdōjī, in the regular course, and then by his second son, S'inbyūyin. The disturbing elements in the rule of succession then began to work. S'inbyūyin nominated Singūsā, one of his sons, as his successor, and the succession was secured to him by a palace intrigue.

This caused a rebellion on the part of the next heir by right of succession, *vis.*, the Amyin Minpā, who was killed in the course of it, and so put out of the way. Maung Maung, the son of Naungdōjī, afterwards raised a sudden palace revolt and deposed Singūsā. This did not fall

¹ The word Minpā means 'king's son,' *i.e.* 'prince.' Reading between the lines of Sangermano, pp. 50ff of the 1885 reprint, it would seem that the Minpā of the earlier Alompra kings held much the position of the Ætheling of the early English; *i.e.*, he was a local chief of the blood royal.

² The Paungāsā of Sangermano, see pp. 53ff of the 1885 reprint.

³ Sangermano, p. 50 (1885 reprint) repeats the story.

⁴ Much after our own fashion, Burmese Queens, Princes and Princesses were given titles, generally after estates that were handed over to them for sustenance, a practice which, however, ceased with the accession of King Mindōn in 1852, who inaugurated the system of paying salaries to the members of his family, his ministers and officials. The rank of the title-holder was indicated by a word suffixed to the name of the place. Sometimes several titles were held by the same person, as with us. The titles of royal children were conferred generally on their reaching an age to be of political importance. Thus, *mībayā* = queen, *minpā*-prince, *minpāmī* = princess, and the titles ran thus: Līmān Mībayā, Amyin Minpā, Sānpēnagō Minpāmī. Titles were occasionally not connected with places, as S'inbyūyin, the Lady of the White Elephant. Kings on accession retained their princely title in the same way, generally from places, as Parāwadi, Pagān, Mindōn and Pībō. Sometimes, however, their titles were descriptive, as S'inbyūyin, the Lord of the White Elephant. Kings had generally several titles, *e.g.*, Parāwadi is equally well-known as Kōngbaung and Shwēbō, both place names, which is confusing. Confusion is further made worse confounded by the private names of these royal personages having come down to history; *e.g.*, Mindōn is still also known as Maung Lwin. Maung Maung, the fifth king of the Dynasty, had apparently no title (unless we grant Sangermano's name of Paungāsā was a title), and was killed before he could give himself one to go down to history. The private name of the Myinzaing Minpā, drowned by order of Bōdōp'ayā in 1147 B. E. (= 1785 A. D.), was Maung P'ō Shin.

in with the Court and general views at all, and, after a seven days' reign, he was put to death by the Court in favour of the rightful heir, Bôdôp'ayâ, who, to settle himself on the throne, put an end to Singûsâ.

Bôdôp'ayâ, like his brother S'inbyûyin, was a powerful ruler, and acted precisely in the same manner. That is, he nominated his son Eûshêmin (Yuvarâja), against the rights of his two surviving brothers, the Pak'anji Minbâ, and the Myinzaing Minbâ. The former wisely acquiesced in the arrangement and died a peaceful death. But the latter rebelled and was killed.

Bôdôp'ayâ reigned for a long while and his son died before him, and the succession went to his elder grandson, Bâjiddô, who, in course of time, was deposed by his brother Parâwadi (otherwise equally well-known as Kôngaung and Shwêbô Min). Parâwadi became insane and the country was governed by a regent, the Pagàn Minbâ, who was the king's rightful heir, being his eldest son by his chief wife. Two years later the regent became King Pagàn. After a while that strong and powerful prince, his brother Mindôn, deposed him, and proved to be the best ruler that Burma had had for many a decade. The acknowledged heir to Mindôn was his remaining brother, the Eûshêmin, who was killed by his nephews, the Myingun and Myingôndaing Princes, in order to keep the succession to themselves, a very serious attempt being made on Mindôn's life at the same time.⁵

The succession to Mindôn consequently devolved upon one of his sons, as the Eûshêmin's family was by rule and custom ousted from it. Another of the disturbing elements in the application of the rule of succession now became apparent. Who was to be considered Mindôn's eldest son and rightful heir? He had a great number of wives and concubines, the wives were of superior and inferior rank, and he had sons of all ages likely to survive him. As a matter of fact every son looked upon himself as the possible heir, only the Myingun and Myingôndaing Princes being out of the way, as outlaws after the murder of their uncle and their attempt to seize their father's throne. Also, it being practically impossible to decide rival claims as to seniority, Mindôn settled on that prince as Eûshêmin, who had done him the best service; viz., the Mèkk'ayâ Prince who had accompanied him on his expedition to dethrone Pagàn.

However, on Mindôn's death, Pibô,⁶ a junior and inferior son, was placed on the throne, owing to the intrigues of a princess, Sûp'ayâlât⁷ and her mother, the S'inbyûmâyin, one of

⁵ This Eûshêmin was generally known to Europeans as the "War Prince"; and though the dignity of "Heir Apparent (= Eûshemin)" was ostensibly conferred on him by his brother in recognition of his distinguished services in the rebellion which raised the latter to the throne, it is to be observed that in doing so Mindôn followed the rule of succession.

⁶ This king's name is that known as Thibaw, Thebaw and Theebaw, corrupted to Theobald by the British soldiers at the time of the annexation of Upper Burma in 1835-36. "Theobald and Sophia" were the King and Queen of Burma according to the British Soldier, (see next note). Thibaw, (pibô) is one of the principal Shân States tributary to the Burmese King, its ruler, the pibô Sôbwâ, being quite as well known to the English in Burma as the king himself. It is curious to note that his predecessor, Mindôn, took his title from a valley in the payotmyô District in British Territory. This was due to the fact that when Mindôn was a prince, the country that afterwards became the British Province of Pegu and consists now of the Irrawaddy and Pegu Divisions of Lower Burma, was still under the rule of the Burmese King.

⁷ Both Sûp'ayâlât (corrupted by the way into Sophia by the British soldier in Mandalay, like the Persian Sophy of the XVIIth and XVIIIth Centuries out of Safavi) and S'inbyûmâyin are titles. S'inbyûmâyin, as already explained, means 'the Lady of the White Elephant.' Sûp'ayâ means a 'princess of the line': a woman whose father was a *de facto* king and whose mother was herself a sûp'ayâ, i.e., not a woman whose descent was otherwise than directly royal on both sides. Lât means 'the middle of three.' So the title indicates that the bearer had an elder and a younger sister. She was in fact the daughter of Mindôn by a royal half-sister, and she married Pibô, he half-brother. Sûp'ayâlât and her elder sister, Sûp'ayâtjî, were installed as co-queens on Pibô's coronation, but the younger sister was strong enough to oust the elder from her conjugal rights. Subsequently Sûp'ayâgalê, the youngest sister, became junior queen to Sûp'ayâlât. It is a general belief among Europeans in Burma that Pibô's mother was not 'royal' in any sense. This is a mistake. Her title was Laungshê Mibayâ, and she was of high royal descent, though not a sûp'ayâ, as above described. Her mother was a daughter of the Eûshêmin of Bôdôp'ayâ (see ante, p. 289) by the daughter of the then pibô Sôbwâ. Hence she was first cousin to her husband Mindôn. Hence also no doubt the choice of title for her son.

Mindôn's superior queens. The efforts of these ladies, the younger of whom became subsequently famous as the chief queen of Dîbò, were successful in consequence of the aid of two Ministers, the Kànpàt Minjî and the Kinwun Minjî, given for political reasons, which need not be here recounted, because of the recent date of the events following on the death of Mindôn in 1878. The superior claimants to the throne, *viz.*, the Dônzê, Mèkk'ayà and Nyaungjàn Princes, together with many others, were put to death, but the Myingun and Miyngôndaing Princes escaped slaughter, as they were in exile.

At the time of his deposition, in 1885, Dîbò's heirs were his half-brothers, the Myingun Prince in exile, (the Miyngôndaing Prince having died in exile in 1884), and the Kòlin and Pynmanà Princes. The lives of the two last had been spared on account of their youth and political insignificance. To the present day the Myingun Prince, still exiled from the country, considers himself the heir to the Burmese throne by established right of succession.

As an ancient authority for the rule may be cited, the following passage from Fausboll's *Jātaka* (Vol. I. pages 127—133).^s

"Attê Kâsirattê Bārāṇasiyam Brahmadattô rājā ahōsi. Tādā Bōdhisattô tassa aggama-hēsiyā kuchchhimim patisandhiṃ gacchi, tassa nāmagahaṇadivasē Mahimsāsakumārō ti nāmaṃ akaṃsu. Tassa ādhāvitvā paridhāvitvā vicharapakālē raññō aññō pi puttō jātō, tassa Chandakumārō ti nāmaṃ akaṃsu. Tassa pana ādhāvitvā paridhāvitvā vicharapakālē Bōdhisattamātā kālam akāsi. Rājā aññiṃ aggamahēsitthānē thāpēsi. Sā raññō piyā ahōsi manāpā. Sā piya-saṃvāsam anvāya ēkaṃ puttāṃ vijāyi, Suriyakumārō ti tassa nāmaṃ akaṃsu. Rājā puttāṃ disvā tuṭṭhachittō, 'bhaddē puttassa iē varaṃ dammīti' āha. Dēvi varaṃ icchhitakālē gahētabbāṃ katvā thāpēsi. Sā puttē vayappattē rājānaṃ āha: 'dēvēna mayhaṃ puttassa jātakālē varō dianō; puttassa mē rajjaṃ dēhīti.' Rājā, 'mayhaṃ dvē puttā aggik-khandā viya jalamānā vicharanti, na sakkā tava puttassa rajjaṃ dātun' ti paṭik-khipitvā, taṃ punappuna yāchamānaṃ ēva disvā: 'ayaṃ mayhaṃ puttānaṃ pāpakam pi chintēyyā 'ti, puttē pakkōsāpētvā āha: 'tāta, ahaṃ Suriyakumārassa jātakālē varaṃ adāsim, idāni 'ssa mātā rajjaṃ yāchati, ahaṃ tassa na dātukāmo, mātugāmo nāma pāpō, tumhākaṃ pāpakam pi chintēyya, tumhē araññiṃ pavisitvā mam' achchayēna kulasantakē nagarē rajjaṃ karēyyātha' ti, kanditvā rōditvā sīsē chumbitvā uyyōjēsi, * * * * * Sō taṃ Yakkhaṃ damētvā tēna saṃvihitārakkhō tatth' ēva vasantō ēkadivasāṃ nakkhattaṃ ōlōkētvā pitu kālaka-tabhāvaṃ natvā Yakkhaṃ ādāya Bārāṇasiṃ gantvā rajjaṃ gahētvā Chandakumārassa ōpa-rajjaṃ Suriyakumārassa senāpatiṭṭhānaṃ datvā."

"In times past Brahmadatta was king, of Bārāṇasi in the country of Kāsi. At that time the Bōdhisatta was incarnated in the womb of his chief queen, and on the naming-day was named Mahimsāsakumāra. When the young prince could walk and run about, another son was born to the king, and was named Chandakumāra. When the second child could walk and run about, the Bōdhisatta's mother died. The king installed another wife as chief queen. She became his darling and delight. Owing to the bond of love subsisting between the king and the queen, a son was born and was named Suriyakumāra. On the birth of this son the king was delighted and said: 'My dear, I shall grant a boon to thy son.' The queen accepted the boon and bided her time to announce its nature. When her son had come of age, she said thus to the king: 'A boon was granted by my Lord to my son at the time of his birth; bestow the crown upon him.' The king replied:—'My two sons are as brilliant as two masses of fire; it is impossible for me to accede to thy prayer.' Though thus refused the queen renewed her request over and over again, and the king thinking: 'This queen might, perhaps, harbour evil designs against my sons,' sent for them and addressed them thus: 'My dear sons, when Suriyakumāra was born, I granted him a boon. Now his mother asks for the kingdom; but I do not wish to give it to him. Womankind is wicked, and the queen might

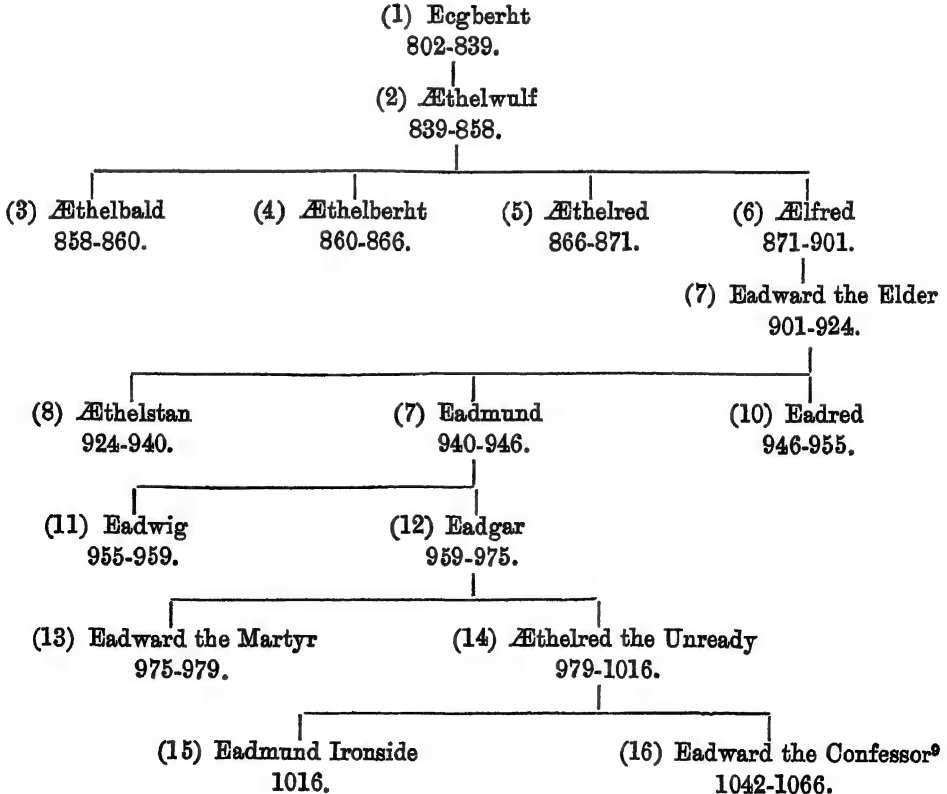
^s I am indebted to Mr. Taw Sein Ko for pointing out this passage. This story is the sixth in Rhys Davids' *Buddhist Birth-Stories*, Vol. I. pp 180-184, and is entitled *Dēvadhamma-Jātaka*.

harbour evil designs against you. Retreat therefore to the forest, and on my death return and assume the reins of government in the city of your fathers.' Weeping and crying, the king kissed his sons on the forehead and sent them away. * * * * * He (Mahimāsakumāra) converted the Yakkha, and lived under his protection. One day, looking up at the stars, the prince became aware of the death of his father, and taking the Yakkha with him, went to Bārānasi and assumed possession of the kingdom. He bestowed the dignity of Uparāja on Chandakumāra and that of Sēnāpati on Suriyakumāra."

No doubt a large number of interesting instances exist in the history of India and the surrounding countries, both of the rule quoted in this article and its application, the collection of which would prove of great use to the proper understanding of Oriental dynastic succession, and in determining approximately, where dates are wanting, the probable duration in years of a line consisting of a given number of Oriental rulers. For it must be borne in mind that, when a rule of such a description as that alluded to in this paper may be presumed to have existed, the number of the kings belonging to a certain family that actually ruled by no means coincides with the number of generations in that family.

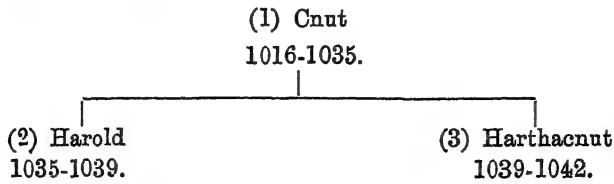
In connection with the subject of this paper I wish to draw attention to the genealogies of the early English and Scottish Kings, as possibly showing a feeling, if not a custom, similar to that pointed out above. The similarity in the order of succession is at least remarkable, even if it turn out to be due to a different set of causes.

As I understand the matter, these kings were elected by the people out of the grown men, capable of leading, who belonged to the royal family. But what we are now concerned with is the actual succession, to which this custom gave rise. Let us take first the successors of Ecgberht, the first general king or overlord of the English tribes.

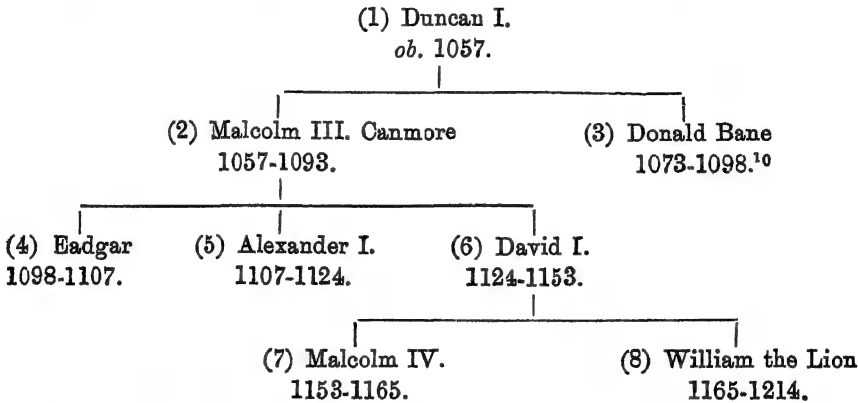


* Canut and his sons having intervened from 1016 to 1042.

Now between Eadmund Ironside and Eadward the Confessor there intervened Cnut the Dane and his successors. Cnut had married Emma, the widow of Æthelred and mother of Eadward, and by her and a former wife had two sons, who succeeded in turn according to seniority, thus :—



Turning to the Scottish kings, we find the genealogy to run thus :—



The practical result then of the English custom of popular election was the succession of brothers before sons, and it will be observed that the succession was carried out in every case cited, for generation after generation, almost exactly in the manner in which it would naturally fall under a rule, such as that enunciated at the commencement of this paper. The interest of these phenomena is in the question :—Were these elections governed by a feeling that the appropriate order of succession is that the brothers of the reigning king should succeed before his sons ?

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEBB SMYTH.

(Continued from p. 215.)

[Vol. XVII. p. 1].

In Bühler's list there follow :—

E. Nandisūtram and F. Anuyōgadvārasūtram, without any name to connect them. In Rājendra Lāla Mitra, *Notices of Ssk. MSS.* 3, *et* (Calc. 1874) and in the *Ratnasāgara*, p. 508 (Calc. 1880) both texts are mentioned in conjunction, but at the close of the Siddhānta after the mūlasūtras. In the Ratnas. the Anuyōgadv. precedes. On the other hand we have already seen (p. 427 fg.) that, at the time of the three *Sāmāyūris*, and indeed at that of the *Vichāramṛitasamgraha*, both texts were placed in a much earlier place of the Siddh., at the head of the pañna group; though in the *Vidhiprapā* at least, their connection with this group is represented as uncertain (see 429ⁿ).

In bearing the stamp of individuality and having a systematic arrangement, both texts have a claim to a free and independent position. This shews that their author attempted to give an encyclopædic, but systematic, review of everything that appeared necessary to him as a means

¹⁰ Duncan II. connected by birth, usurped for a year, 1094-1095.

of information in reference to the sources and forms of a correct knowledge and understanding of the sacred texts. In this way [2] he could present his readers with a hermeneutical introduction.¹ These two works are admirably adapted to the use of any one who, having completed a collection or redaction of them, then seeks for light concerning the nature of sacred knowledge itself. The statement of the scholiast on the Nandī has no little internal probability² in asserting that Dēvarāchaka, i. e. Dēvarddhigaṇi himself, was their author. Furthermore, the list of teachers in the commencement of the Nandī and also in the commencement of mūlas. 2, as we shall soon see, breaks off³ with Dūsagaṇi, whom the scholiast states to be the teacher of Dēvarāchaka, author of the Nandī. There is, however, no external support for this conclusion which is not borne out by any information to be derived from the contents. In fact, the contrary view seems to result from these sources of our knowledge; see p. 17 ff. The Anuyōgadv. contains all manner of statements, which would synchronize with the date of Dēvarddhigaṇi, 980 Vira, i. e. fifth, or sixth century A. D. But I possess no information which would lead me to connect the composition of the Anuyōgadv. especially with him; and the difference in the terminology militates against the probability of both texts being the production of one and the same author; see pp. 9, 11, 21. That the Nandī is anterior to the Anuyōgadv. is made probable by some passages of the latter work, which appear to have been extracted from the Nandī. But the fact that the Anuyōgadv. is mentioned in the aṇāgapaviṭṭha list in the Nandī (see p. 12), makes for the opposite conclusion.

We find references to the Nandī in the remarks of the redactor scattered here and there in the aṅgas and upaṅgas; and especial attention is directed to the statement of the contents of the 12 aṅgas found in the N. This statement is found in greater detail in part 2 of aṅga 4. Hence the fact that in these references of the redactor, the Nandī and not aṅga 4 is cited. We do not read *jahā samavādyē*, but *jahā Nandī*; see 284, 352 (accord. to Leumann, also Bhag. 25, 3 Rājapr. p. 243): — which must be regarded as a proof that the Nandī was the authority on which these references were based. The treatment of the subject in aṅga 4 is, then, merely an appropriation to itself and extension of the contents of this part of the Nandī. Other arguments, notably that many of the readings in the Nandī are older in special cases (see 349, 363) incline us to the same conclusion.

If now the nominal redactor of the entire Siddhānta or at least of the aṅgas and upaṅgas, Dēvarddhigaṇi, was also author of the Nandī, it becomes at once apparent why he referred to his own work in reference to so special a subject as the statement of the contents of the 12 aṅgas; and the account in aṅga 4 is to be regarded as an insertion made after D.'s time. See p. 19.

I find in the Siddhānta no remarks of a redactor in reference to the Anuyōgadvāras, though Leumann thinks to have discovered one (Bhag. 5, 4). In the text of Āvaśy. 10, 1 the Anuyōgadvāras. is mentioned together with, or rather after, the Nandī as a preliminary stage of advancement for the study of the sūtra. [Both texts are in fact thought to introduce the study of each sūtra that has been treated by a Nirukti. L.]

Both sūtras are composed in prose, though occasionally [4] gāthās are inserted; that is to say if we except the 50 verses in the commencement of the Nandī. These gāthās, in which the Nom. Sgl. Masc. 1 Decl. always ends in *o* and not in *e*, are manifestly the genuine productions of their authors. In the prose part, the preservation of the nom. in *e* shews that there is an attempt to reproduce the language and form of the sacred texts. The Nandī embraces only 719 grāntas, the Anuyōgadv. about twice as many.

XLI. The Nandī, Nandī, or the Nandīsūtram. The three sāmāyārī texts understand by nandī, or nandikaddhāvaṇiā (Āvi.), nandirayapaṇi (Vi), an introductory ceremony, in long or

¹ "A glossary of the above-named sūtras and a description of five Jñānas" is the somewhat peculiar description of the contents of the *Nandīsūtra* by Kāśhināth (p. 227).

² See also Bhāṭ Dāji in the *Journal Bombay Branch R. As. S. 9*, 151.

³ See Jacobi, *Kalpas*, p. 15, note 2.

short form as the case may be, for the sāvayakachchāṇi (śrāvakakṛityāṇi), especially for the didactic exposition or the recitation of the aṅgas, etc. It is almost probable that by this the recitation of our text is referred to. We read in *Āvi*: taḥ gurū namokkāratigapuvvaṃ naṃdīm kaḍḍhañ, sā chē 'yaṃ: nāṇaṃ paṃchavihaṃ . . , and then follows the real commencement of the Nandi. See below. This is, however, soon interrupted, and the citation passes to that variant textual form which is found in *Anuyōgaḍv*. Another change then occurs, and finally that enumeration of the sacred texts is reached which is found later on in the Nandi. We have, therefore, here no immediate citation from the text of the Nandi but a relation based essentially on the same foundation but in its form independent, a relation whose designation by the same word is based upon the appellative signification of this expression. We may compare the [5] similar use of the word nāndī in Skt. for those introductory strophes of a drama which are designed to bring good fortune. Cf. also nāndika as the name of a door-post, and nāndīpaṭa, a cover of a spring (P. W.). Haribhadra on *Āśy*. 9, 1 has the following: — ādimāṃgalārthaṃ nāndī vyākhyātā, and in the commencement of his commentary, *ibid.*: — nō-āgamatō bhāvaṃgalaṃ nāndī, tatra nāmdanaṃ nāndī, nāmdanty anayē 'ty vā bhavyāḥ prāṇina iti nāndī. The signification of the title of our text is really: an introduction designed to bring good fortune. This title can refer either to the entire contents of the work such as I have above sketched, or, and this seems preferable, to the 50 verses which form the beginning.⁴ In vv. 1—19 Vira is praised, in vv. 20, 21 there is an enumeration of the 24 Jinas, in vv. 22, 23 a list of his immediate scholars, the 11 so-called gaṇadharas, and finally, from v. 24 on, a thērāvalī beginning with Suhamma (1) and Jambū (2), and embracing in all thirty members; it closes in the third generation after Nāgajjuna (23) with Dūsagaṇi (30), who, according to the anonymous scholiast (on v. 27) was the teacher of Dēvavāchaka, the author.⁵

As we have already seen on page 471, this thērāvalī varies, from the ninth member on, from the statements in the list contained in the *Kalpasūtra*. [6] The reason for this is apparent from a consideration of the remarks of the scholiast (avachūri) on v. 27: Suhastinaḥ śishyāvalikāyāḥ śrīkalpē uktatvāt na ta(s)ya ihā 'dhikāraḥ, tasyāṃ Nāndikṛid-Dēvavāchaka-gurvanutpattēḥ. From this it is clear that the author of the avachūri considers Dēvavāchaka to be the author of the Nandi, and that this account does not emanate, like that of the śrīkalpa, from Suhastin (10). The evidence proves that it is rather to be referred to his immediate predecessor, or brother,⁶ Mahāgiri (9), whose intellectual descent it makes known.

In reference to each of its members there exists great uncertainty,⁷ according to the statements of the scholiast, who says of verses 31, 32: kshēpakatvād vṛittau nō 'ktaṃ,⁸ and remarks on vv. 33, 34: ētagāthādvayārtha āvaśyakadīpikātō likhitō 'sti, avachūrṇāv api nā 'sti, vv. 41, 42 is: vṛittāv avyākhyātātāt prakshiptam, and of Gōvindāchārya he says, on v. 43: śishyakramābhāvād vṛittau nō 'ktaḥ, āvaśyakatīkāto likhitah.

⁴ These recur, as has already been mentioned, in the commencement of the *Āśy*. nijj. in identically the same form.

⁵ Cf. the name of the nāndimukhāḥ pitaras or of the nāndīśrāddham. In the case of the latter was there any recitation of a list of ancestors?

⁶ *gurubhrātaraṃ* in Klatt, *Indian Antiqu.* 11, 231a, or ubhāv api bhrātaraṃ in Dharmaghoṣa's *Gurvāvalī* itself. Suhastin is characterized as the laghugurubhrātar of Mahāgiri, also in the paṭṭāvalī of the Kharataragaccha, Klatt, 246b. Klatt in accordance with other traditions (cf. *Kalpasūtra*) refers both to different gotras: and Mahāgiri to Elāpatyagotra (so here v. 27, Elāvachasagotta), Suhastin to Vāsitha. Have they different mothers?

⁷ On this cf. Jacobi in *Journ. Germ. Or. Soc.* 34, 232, 3, especially in reference to verses 27, 23, 36, 37, and Leumann's remarks, *ibid.* 37, 497 fg. In v. 27 we must read in Jacobi: Bahulassa sarivvayaṃ (vvayaṃ for vayasam) vaṃdē instead of bahulassa Sirivayaṃ vaṃdē (see Klatt, l. c. 251b); in the scholiast we read iha Mahāgiriṇ dvau śishyau abhūtān: Vahulō Valissahaḥ (cf. Kalpas. Thērāv. § 6) cha; tatō Mahāgiriṇ anantaram Vahulasya yamalabhrātrivāt sadrisāvayaṃ, prāvāchanikatvāna pradhānatvāt, Valissaham eva 'ty arthah.

⁸ *Āryanamāḍila* (21) v. 38 becomes then *Ārya-Maṅgu* (16) śishya v. 30. But even verse 38, in which *Āryanamāḍila* is mentioned, is doubtful: see above.

[7] The list reads⁹: 1. Suhamma, — 2. Jambu, — 3. Pabhava, — 4. Sijjambhava, — 5. Jasabhadda, — 6. Sambhūa, — 7. Bhaddavāhu, — 8. Thūlabhadda, — 9. Mahāgiri (and Suhatti, — 10. (Valissaha) the twin-brother of Vahula (see note ⁷ on p. 6), — 11. Sāi,¹⁰ — 12. Sāmajja, 'Syāmārya,¹¹ — 13. Saṁḍilla, — 14. Ajja¹² Jādhara, Jīta^o, — 15. Samudda, — 16. Maṅgu¹³ v. 30, — 17. Dhamma v. 31, — 18. Bhaddagutta v. 31, — 19. Vaara,¹⁴ Vajra v. 31, — 20. Rakkhia v. 32, — 21. Ajjānāmdila, i. e. perhaps Ajja Ānāmdila (Ajja N^o Schol.) v. 33, — 22. Nāgahatti v. 34, — 23. Rēvañakkhatta v. 35, — 24. Khamdila vv. 36, 37,¹⁵ — 25. Himavanta vv. 38, 39, — 26. Nāgajjuṇa¹⁶ vv. 39, 40, 45, — 27. Gāvinda v. 41, — 28. Bhūadinna vv. 42—45, scholar of Nāgajjuṇa, — 29. Lōhichcha v. 46, — 30. Dūsagani vv. 47—49.

That this list actually reaches as far as the author or his teacher is rendered the more probable by the fact that in the last verse of the list (v. 50) the nāssa parivāṇaṁ is stated to be the purpose of the account which is to follow — and this purpose reproduces correctly the contents of N. Next follow two secondary insertions, first a gāthā, [8] which cites 14 examples or titles of stories in reference to capable and incapable scholars (the avachūri contains a more detailed account) and secondly a short polemical notice of the three kinds of parisā, parśad, viz.: — jāṇiā, ajāṇiā and duvviāḍḍhiā — each of which is illustrated by a gāthā.

At this point the investigation of the jñānam begins, in which a principal part is played by the enumeration of the different categories and sub-categories of both the principal classes into which the jñānam is divided¹⁷ — the pachchakkhanāṇam and the parokkhanāṇam. The latter contains much that is interesting. It in turn is twofold, ābhiniṇḍhiya^o ('bodhika) and sua^o (śruta).

In the account of one of the two groups into which the ābhiniṇḍhiyaparokkhanāṇam is divided, are inserted eight gāthās, which contain the titles of stories which belong in this connection, and which are intended to serve as examples. The avachūri goes into detail on this point.

The suanāṇaparokkham is divided into 14 groups among which Nos. 5, 6, 13, 14 are of special importance: — The sammāsuaṁ 5, samyakśrutam, is explained as jaṁ imaṁ arihaṁtēhiṁ bhagavāntēhiṁ uppannānādaṁasagadharēhiṁ . . . paṇṭyaṁ duvālasaṁgaṁ gaṇipidagaṁ, taṁ jahā: āyārō . . . ditiḥivā¹⁸ ichch-ēyaṁ du^ogaṁ ga^ogaṁ choddasapuvvissa sammāsuaṁ abhinna¹⁹ dasa[9]puvvisa sammāsuaṁ. The posteriority of its composition to Vajra at least is clearly brought out in this passage.

In michchhasuaṁ₆ we find that enumeration of some 20 works, or classes of works, of Brahminical literature which I cited from the *Anuyōgadavāsūtra*²⁰ and discussed on Bhagav. 2, 245. This list is here more detailed and offers several variants: — Bhārahaṁ Rāmāyaṇam Bhīmā-

⁹ See Mērtuṅga's *Thērdavāli* in *Bhāu Dāḍi, Journ. Bombay Br. R. As. S. 9*, 151 (1867). Nos. 17—20 are not found therein (see p. 6), No. 21 is called Mandilla ('dila), No. 28 Rēvañsīha, and the list gives one name more in mentioning Dēvar(d)hi himself after Dūsagani.

¹⁰ Valissahaśishyaṁ Hārītagotraṁ Svātīn.

¹¹ Nominally author of up. 4, see p. 392.

¹² This epithet explained by Āryagotra is found also in Nos. 15—17, 19—22.

¹³ ke 'pi Maṅgōr Āryadharmē 'ti nāmāntaram āhuh, No. 17 then falls out.

¹⁴ According to the scholiast the dasapūrvīṇah (see Hem. v. 34) Āryarakshitas tachchishyo Durvalikāpushpaś cha navapūrvīṇah, reach from Mahāgiri to Vajra. See page 348.

¹⁵ Bimbhadvagasthā, Vrahmadvipikāśākh'palakshittā Sindhān Sindhāchāryān.

¹⁶ Cf. the Nāgārjunīyās in the Scholiast on aṅga 2, 2, and see p. 265.

¹⁷ nāṇaṁ pañchaviṁśa: ābhiniṇḍhiyānāṇaṁ sua^o ōhi^o mapapajjava^o kēvala^o. Or duviham: pachchakkham and parokkham, and the latter is then: ābhiniṇḍhiyaparokkhanāṇam cha suanāṇaparokkham cha; the āhi^o is suanissāṇ cha asuaniṣsiyāṇ cha; both are fourfold, and the latter is divided into: uppattiyā, vēṇaiā, kammiā, pariṇāmiā buddhi (see p. 14n).

¹⁸ In the scholiast sāmāyikādi viṇḍusāraparyāntam, see pages 244, 245, 348.

¹⁹ tatō 'dhōmukhaparihānyā yāvat saṁpūrnadasapūrvadharasya; see p. 16n.

²⁰ Where it is characterized as nō-āgamaś bhāvasuyaṁ and as annāṇhiṁ michhādithiṁ sachchhamadabudhamāyigappiyāṇ; — cf. the 29vīhaṁ pāvasuaṁ Āvaśy., *Ind. Stud.* 16, pp. 115, 116. I denote the four MSS., to which I have had access as A B C R. The citations from Nmd. are by Leumann.

surakkham²¹ Kôḍillayam²² sagabhadriyā²³ kappāsiyam²⁴ nāgasuhumam kaṇagasattari²⁵ vaiśe-siyam²⁶ Vuddhavaṣaṇam²⁷ vēsiyam²⁸ Lōgāyatan saṭthitāntam²⁹ Mādharam³⁰ purāṇam vāgarāṇam Bhāgavayam³¹ Pāṇṇajālī Pussadēvayam lēham (hēlam MS.) gaṇiam saṇṇarūyam³² nādayā³³ ahavā [10] bhavātari kalāḍ chattāri ya vēyā saṅgōvaṅgā. The commentary offers nothing in explanation :³⁴ tē cha lōkaprasiddhāḥ, tatō lōkata ēva tēśhām svarūpam avagaṇṭṭayyam.

Under *anaṅgapaviṭṭham* (No. 14 is, however, treated of before No. 13) are enumerated the titles of all the texts belonging to the *Siddhānta* at the time of the composition of the *Nandī*, but not included in the *aṅgas*. This enumeration is extremely interesting. It must have been retained as a stereotyped list for a long period after the composition of the *Nandī*, since it is to be found *verbatim et litteratim* not only in the *Pāṭhikāsūtra* (P),³⁵ but also in the 3 *sāmāchāris* (see pp. 369, 370) in a form that is but slightly different.³⁶ The great interest which attaches to this list is caused by the fact that the largest portion of the texts similar to these and now belonging to the *Siddhānta* is mentioned here, and that a different arrangement is observed. They are not enumerated in the special groups into which they are now divided. The names of these groups are partly wanting, e.g., *uvāṅga*, *paṇṇa* *chhēasutta*, *mūlasutta* are not mentioned at all, and *paṇṇa* occurs, but in a different meaning. A large number of titles or texts are mentioned which at present are either not found in the [11] *Siddhānta*, or, if found at all, are merely titles of subdivisions and not of independent texts; and in some cases these titles appear to have arisen from their connection with the subject-matter itself.

The *anaṅgapaviṭṭham* is divided into two groups: *āvassayam* and *āvassayavāṛittam*. The *āvassayam* is called *chhavviham* and six names for it are enumerated: *sāmāiyam* *chaivīsathaḍ* etc. Cf. my remarks on page 433 and on *anuyōgadv.* and *mūlasutta* 2. The *āvassayavāṛittam* is double: *kāliyam* *cha* *ukkāliyam* *cha*. Then follows the enumeration of the texts counted as belonging to the *ukkāliyam*:³⁷ 1. *dasavēyāliyam* ^{45, 38} 2. *kappiyākappiyam*,³⁹ 3. *chulla-*

²¹ 'ktam A, 'shkam B.

²² Kōḍa° An., where ghōḍamuham (A, 'ḍayamu° C, 'ḍayasuhām B, 'ḍayasuyam B) follows. Nēd. too has khōḍamuham, but after sayabha°.

²³ sagadabha° B C R, sētaṇbha° A.

²⁴ kappākappiam A.

²⁵ 'sattari vēsiyam B C R, vēsiyam omitted in A.

²⁶ so An. Nēd. vasēsiyam the Berlin MS. of N. (= MS.)

²⁷ 'vayayam MS., Vuddhasāsapaṇam B C R, ruḅha(!)vayayam A; in An. we find also Kāvīlam; also in Nēd. Kāvīliyam comes before Lōga°.

²⁸ tēsiyam Nēd., B C R omit.

²⁹ Already mentioned in the *aṅgas*, see Bhag. 2, 246, page 304 (cf. Kalpas. pp. 35, 101) and Max Müller: *India, What can it teach us?* p. 362.

³⁰ See *Ind. Stud.* 13, 337, 38, 425 and *Agnimāthara* Vishṇupur. 3, 4, 18 (pp. 44, 45 Wilson-Hall).

³¹ Bhāgavayam to saṇṇarūvam omitted in An.

³² sa'ṇarūvam MS.; perhaps 'ruyam, otherwise the last of the 72 kalās; see above p. 293. In the scholiast on *Āvaśy.* 13, 36: saṇṇipārō vi garahīō hōi we find the following peculiar statement: — śakunīśabdēna chaturdaśa vidyāsthānāni parigrihyante: aṅgāni chaturō vēdā mīmāṃsā nyāyavistarāḥ | purāṇam, dharmasāstraṁ cha sthānāny āhūś chaturdaśa || tatā 'ṅgāni śhaṭ, tad yathā: śikṣā vyākaraṇam kalpaḥ chhamdō niruktaṁ jyōtiṣam iti. The position of the *aṅgas* in the front of the list is one of the remarkable things in this statement.

³³ Mādhara purāṇa vēyaraṇa B R; nāḍagādī A.

³⁴ Hēmaṇḍrasūtrī on the *Anuyōgadv.* has likewise only: ētach cha Bhāratādīkam nāṭakādi-paryāntam śrutam lōkaprasiddhigamyam.

³⁵ In the *Pāṭhikāsūtra* this is introduced by the words namō tēsam khamāsamaṇāṇam jēhim imam vēiyam aṅgabāhiram ukkāliyam (or kāliyam) bhagavāntam, tam jahā: dasavēyāliyam . . . The *Pāṭhikāsūtram* is enumerated by Rāj. L. M., see above p. 227, as the fourth *mūlasūtram* after the *Siddhāntadharmasāstra*. It sings the praises of each part of the *Siddhānta* (aṅgabāhira and dūvālasaṅga) and contains especially an acknowledgment of belief in the five *mahāvayyas*.

³⁶ The enumeration of the names in S. contains a different grammatical construction, i. e. the names are in the genitive.

³⁷ The *avachūri* gives explanations (occasionally in detail) of at least some of the names. A large number of the names is, however, passed over in silence. [Explanations may however be found at the end of the *Vyavahāra-bhāṣya*, as the corresponding part of the *sūtra* mentions most of the names.—L.]

³⁸ These numbers represent the arrangement which I have observed here in essential agreement with Bühler's list in the enumeration of the parts of the *Siddhānta*.

³⁹ The texts which are no longer found as separate texts in the *Siddhānta*, are printed in italics. On *kappiyāk*, (cf. *kappākappiam* p. 9 n. 24), *chullak*. and *mahāk*., see the scholiast's remarks, p. 479 above.

kappasuan⁴⁰ 4. mahākappasuan⁴⁰ 5. dvāiyam⁴¹ 13, 6. rāyapasēniyam⁴² 14, 7. jivābhigamō 15, 8. paṇṇavanā 16, 9. mahāpaṇṇavanā⁴³ 10. pamāyappamāyam⁴⁴ [12] 11. naṁdī⁴⁵ 41, 12. dēvim-dattha⁴⁶ 31, 13. anuḍgadārām 42, 14. taṁdulaṇḍiyāyam 29, 15. chaṁdāvijjhayaṁ⁴⁷ 30, 16. sūrapaṇṇatti⁴⁸ 17, 17. pōrisimaṇḍalanā⁴⁹ 18. maṇḍalappavēso⁵⁰ 19. vijjāccharaṇavinichchha⁵¹ 20. gaṇivijjā⁵² 32, 21. jhāṇavibhattī⁵³ 22. maraṇavibhattī⁵⁴ 23. āyavisohī⁵⁵ 24. viyārayasuan⁵⁶ 25. saṁlāhaṇāsuan⁵⁷ 26. viḥārakappō⁵⁸ 27. charaṇaviḥā⁵⁹ 28. āura[13]pachchakkhāṇaṁ⁶⁰ 29, 29. mahāpachchakkhāṇaṁ⁶¹ 33 ēvam-āi⁶² — To the kāliyam the following texts are ascribed : — 30. uttarajjhayaṇāim⁶³ 43, 31. dasāō 39, 32. kappō 39, 33. vavahārō 37, 34. nisīhaṁ⁶⁴ 35, 35. mahānisīhaṁ 36, 36. isibhāsīyāim⁶⁵ 37. Jāmvuddivapaṇṇatti 18, 38. divasāgarapaṇṇatti⁶⁶ 39. chaṁdapaṇṇatti 19, 40. khuddiyā vimāṇapaṇṇatti⁶⁷ 41. mahalliyā vimāṇapaṇṇatti⁶⁷,

⁴⁰ Name of the first chhēdasūtra according to Āvaśyaka 8, 55, see pages 446, 479.

⁴¹ So V., uvavā° P, uvā° N. Āvi. Svi. ; in S before No. 5 we find : pamāyappamāyam ; pamāy. here is No. 10.

⁴² So also P Āvi., a form which suits rājaprasānyam better than the usual pasēniyam ; Svi. V. have pasēniyassa but with one y ; see p. 382.

⁴³ For explanation of the scholiast on Nos. 8, 9, see p. 392.

⁴⁴ In S before No. 5, in P after No. 15 ; pramāḍapramāḍasvarūpabhēdaphalavipākpratiṭṭhādakam adhyayanam (cf. Uttarajjh. Cap. 4), Āvaśh.

⁴⁵ The Nandi itself ! naṁdītyādi sugamam.

⁴⁶ °thui P ; in Nēd. P.S. transposed with No. 13 (°dārāō P).

⁴⁷ °vijjīyam P, °vijjayaṁ Nēd.

⁴⁸ Is omitted here in PS and comes after No. 37 ; sūryacharyāprajāṇaṇaṁ yasyaṁ grāṁthapaddhataṁ sūryaprajñaptiḥ.

⁴⁹ pōrasaṁ P ; paurushīmaṇḍalam iti, purushah śarīkuḥ, purushaśarīraṁ vā, tasmān niḥpaṇṇāpaurushi, sarvasyā 'pi vastunō yathā svapramāṇā chhāyā jāyatē tadā paurushī syāt, ētāc cha paurushīpramāṇaṁ uttarāyaṇasyā 'intē dakṣiṇāyaṇasyā "dau cha ēkaṁ dinam syāt, tataḥ param aṅgulasā 'śtāt v'ekashashṭibhāgā (8/31) dakṣiṇāyaṇā vardhamāntē, uttarāyaṇē cha hrasamīti, ēvaṁ maṇḍalē-maṇḍalē paurushī yatrā 'dhyayaṇā varṇyatē tat paurushīmaṇḍalam, Āvaśh. Cf. book 9 in up. 5 [and Bhag. 11, 11, L.]

⁵⁰ sūryāchāṇḍramasōr yatra dakṣiṇēshū 'ttareṣu cha maṇḍalēshu saṁchārātōr yathā maṇḍalān maṇḍalē pravēśē(°sō) vyāvṛṇyatē san(tan)maṇḍalapravēśah, Āvaśh. ; cf. the first book in up. 5.

⁵¹ vijjā° P S ; in P S transposed with No. 20 ; vidyā samyag-jñānaṁ charaṇaṁ chāritram, ētēśhān phalavinīśchaya pratipādakō grāṁthah, Āvaśh. [= Bhag. 20, 9 Leumann.]

⁵² See p. 443.

⁵³ yatrā "rtadhyānādīnāṁ vibhajanaṁ proktaṁ tat, Āvaśh. ; appears in the Vidhiprapā among the pañnas in the eighth place. See p. 428.

⁵⁴ Omitted in Āvi. pr. m., maraṇāni prasastāprasastarūpāni teshān pārthakyēna yatra vibhajanaṁ uktam-Āvaśh. ; see-p. 428n.

⁵⁵ yatrā (!) "tmanō jīvasyā "lochanā-prāyaśchitta-pratipattiprabhītikaraṇēna viśuddhir yatra vyāvṛṇyatē tat, Āvaśh. In Svi. V maraṇavisohī in addition follows here.

⁵⁶ In P S after No. 25 ; sarāgavyapōhēna vitarāgasvarūpaṁ vyāvṛṇyatē yatra tat, Āvaśh.

⁵⁷ yatra dravyabhāvasamlekhaṇasvarūpaṁ pratipādyatē, Āvaśh. ; three verses are added in attestation thereof : yathā, chattāri vichittān vigaṇijjāhiyā chattāri | sacchvachchharē u dunnī u ēgamtariyam cha āyamaṁ || 1 || pāvigittā atavō ohammāsē parimam cha āyamaṁ | annē vi ya chhammāsē hōi vikittham tarōkammam || 2 || vāsē kōḍisahiyaṁ āyamaṁ kaṭṭu ānupuvvā | girikāṇḍarammi gaṇtū pāvagamanaṁ aha karē || 3 || bhāvasaṁ, lekhaṇā tu krodhādiratipakṣābhyaśah (!). [The three verses are taken from the Āchāra-niryukti (287-289).—L.]

⁵⁸ viḥārāḥ sthāvirakalpādirūpō yatra varṇyatē, Āvaśh.

⁵⁹ visohī P, °vibhattī Svi. ; chāritrasya vidhih, Āvaśh.

⁶⁰ The scholiast appears to have had before him another text than the usual one. See p. 437.

⁶¹ mahat pratyākhyānaṁ yatrō 'ktaṁ, Āvaśh.

⁶² Instead of ēvamāi P has : savvēhiṇ pi ēyamma aṅgabāhīrē ukkāliē bhagavaṁtē sasuttē sa-atthē saggaṁthē samijjuttē sasaṅgahaṇē jō guṇā va bhāvā va . . . tē bhāvē saddahāmi . .

⁶³ ētāny adhyayānāni ngamaṇaṁ sarveshāṁ adhyayānānāṁ pradhānatvē 'pi rūḍhyā 'mūny ēvō 'ttarādhyaya-nasābdavāchyatvēna prasiddhāni, Āvaśh.

⁶⁴ Without any explanation. See p. 460 for No. 35.

⁶⁵ In P S before No. 34 ; without explanation. See pages 259, 272, 280-81, 402, 429, 432, 442.

⁶⁶ In P S No. 16 is inserted here. The order in P is sūrap., chaṁdap., divasāg., in S : chaṁdap., sūrap., divas. ; on divasāgarap. see pp. 268, 339, 429.

⁶⁷ khuddiyā and mahalliyā also in S (i. e., °yāvi), not °yāē as we should expect ; āvalikāpravishtānāṁ itareśhān vā vimānānāṁ prabhajanaṁ yatrō 'ktaṁ, sū vimāṇapavibhaktir dvīdhā, 'lpākṣharārthā "dyā, dvitīyā mahāgrāṁthārthā. See the kārīkās above pp 223, 224 in reference to Nos. 40—44, 45—49 as the object of study for the eleventh and twelfth years. In aṅga 3 Nos. 40—49 appear together as forming the saṁkhēviyadasā, or as the 10 ajjhayanās that belong in this connection. See pp. 273, 274.

42. *aṅgachūlīd*⁶⁸, 43. *vaṅgachūlīd*⁶⁹, 44. *vivāhachūlīd*⁷⁰, 45. *Aruṇōvavāḍ*⁷¹, 46. *Garulōvavāḍ*⁷², [14] 47. *Dharaṇovavāḍ*⁷³, 48. *Vesamaṇovavāḍ*⁷⁴, 49. *Velanḍharovavāḍ*, 50. *deviṇḍharovavāḍ*, 51. *utthāṇasue*⁷⁵, 52. *samutthāṇasue*⁷⁶, 53. *nāgapariyāvaliyāḍ*⁷⁷, 54. *nirayāvaliyāḍ*⁷⁸ 20, 55. *kappiyāḍ*⁷⁹ 20, 56. *kappavaḍimsayāḍ*⁷⁹ 22, 57. *pupphiyāḍ* 21, 58. *pupphachūlīyāḍ* 23, 59. *Vaṇhidasāḍ* 24, *evām-āiyāim*⁸⁰ *chaūṛāsī* *paññagasasahassāim* *bhagavaḍ* *Vaḍḍhamāṇasāmissa*; *ahavā jassa jattiyā sīsā uppattiyāḍ*⁸¹ *veṇaiyāe kammiyāe pāriṇāmiyāe chaūvviḥāe* *buddhīe uvaveyā tassa tattiyāim* *paññagasahassāim*, *pattegabuddhā vi tattiyā cheva*; *se 'taṃ kālīam suam*. This is the conclusion in the Berlin MS. of N. Dr. Leumann, [15] however, says that this conclusion contains a large lacuna. We find in the edition of N.⁸² *evāmāiyāim* *chaūṛāsī* *paññagasahassāim* *bhagavaḍ* [*Usahasāmissa ātitthagarassa*, *taha saṃkhijjāim* *paññagasahassāim* *majjhamagāṇam* *Jiṇavarāṇam*, *chaūddasa* *paññagasahassāim* *bhagavaḍ*] *Vaḍḍhamāṇasāmissa*, etc.

From this we may draw the conclusion that the 59 titles⁸³, according to the opinion of the author of the Nandī, represent merely a portion of the 84,000 *paññas* (our MS. has 184,000 in the text!), which belonged to the first *tīrthakara* *Rishabhasvāmin* and to the 22 *Jiṇavaras* following him; but that at the time of *Vardhamānasvāmin* their number was reduced to 14,000. Or according to another view, each of the 24 *tīrthakaras* had just so many thousand

⁶⁸ *aṅgasyā 'chārādās chūlīkā nuktānuktārthasamgrahātmikā* *granthapaddhatil*; see pp. 255, 274.

⁶⁹ so MS. P. *Āvi.*, but *vagga°* *Nēd*, *aṅga* 3 (see p. 274), *Svi.*, *V.* and *Avach.*: *vargō 'dhyayanānām samāhu yathā 'mtakpiddasāv aṣṭau vargās* (see p. 320), *teshām kalikā (chūlī°)*?

⁷⁰ *bhagavatichūlīkā*, see pp. 274, 296.

⁷¹ *Aruṇō nāma dēvas, tadvaktavyatāyāḥ pratipādakō* *granthah*, *parāvartyamānās cha tadupapātahētuḥ sō 'ruṇōpātah*; *evām garuḍōpapatādayō 'pi vāchyāḥ*; see pp. 224, 274, 316; cf. *Aruṇa* as name of the dawn or as that of the charioteer of the sun. Up to this point the nominatives end in *o*, from this point on in *e*; so also in P.

⁷² *Garuḍō°* P. In P after 47.

⁷³ So also S, but *Varu°* in P and scholiast on *aṅga* 3, *Vara°* in the text there (see p. 274). The king of the *Nāgas* is probably referred to.

⁷⁴ In N after No. 49 we find *vāsamaṇa = vaiśravaṇa*.

⁷⁵ *utthāṇasrutam, udvasanahētukam* *śrutam, Avach.* See page 224, where mention is made of four *ajjh.*, which begin with *utth.*, and which are the subject of the study of the thirteenth year. In this place, however, we find only Nos. 52—55 devoted to this year; but does No. 50, too, belong in this connection? In Sv. No. 50 stands between 52 and 53.

⁷⁶ *samupasthāpanasrutam, bhūyas tatrai 'vā 'vāsana(°)hētukam* *śrutam; vakāralōpaḥ* *prākṛitatvāt, Avach.*

⁷⁷ so P, *'yāvaṇiyāḍ* MS.; *'yāvaliyāṇam* *Svi. V.*, *'pāriavēliṇam* *Āvi.*; *nāgakumārās, tēshām pariṇā yatro 'ktā, Avach.*

⁷⁸ so MS.² P, *'llo* MS.¹; *'liyāṇam* S; No. 54 in the existing *Siddhānta* is the collective name of up. 8 to 12 and at the same time the specific title of up. 8; No. 55 is there merely another name for No. 54. See p. 418; and p. 420 for the explanation of 54—59. On page 420 we must read *'gūcharā graṃ°*.

⁷⁹ *ḍamsi* P, *ḍimsi* V.

⁸⁰ Instead of *evām-āiyāim* . . . P has 60 *āstvisabhāvaṇāḍ*, 61 *ditthivisabhāvaṇāḍ*, 62 *chāraṇasamaṇabhāvaṇāḍ*, 63 *mahāsuvīṇabhāvaṇāḍ*, 64 *tēgānisaggā ṇam savvēhiṃ pi 'yāmmi aṅgabāhīrē kālīe* *bhagavamtē* . . (as above, p. 13, note 3). These five names are cited in S. too with the following variations: *chāraṇabhāvaṇāṇam* (omitted in *Āvi.*), *mahāsūmipagabhāv.* (V., also omitted in *Āvi.*), *tēyaga(tēagga°* *Āvi.)nisaggāṇam*. — These five texts are found in the same order in the *kārikās* mentioned in p. 224 as designed for the fourteenth to the eighteenth year of study. *Tēyanisagga* is the special name of the fifteenth book in *aṅga* 5. See p. 301n.

⁸¹ See above p. 8, note 1; *autpattikī, vainayikī karmasamutthā pāriṇāmiḥ*.

⁸² The *Avach.* agrees with the account in our MSS.: — *evām ādini chaturāsttisamkhyāni prakīrṇakasahasrāpi Rishabhasvāminas, tīvratpramāṇānām śramaṇasahasrāṇām sambhavāt, prakīrṇakānām cha tadrachitatvāt; madhyamatīrthakṛitām api saṃkhyēyāni prakīrṇakasahasrāṇi vāchyāni; Vardhamānasvāminas chaturdaśasahasrāpi. — anyē punar āhuḥ: idam Rishabhādīnām chaturāsttisahasrādikam śramaṇamānām pradhānēśūtraraḥanaśmādhyaṃ (or merely 'ohanām°) adhikṛityō 'ktam, anyathā sāmānyasramaṇāḥ prabhūtatarā api tadā Rishabhādīkālē āstṛan. — anyē punar evām āhuḥ: Rishabhādīnām jīvātām idam chaturāsttisahasrādikam śramaṇamānām, pravāhataḥ punar ākaśasmin tīrthē bhūtyānsō 'py āstṛan, tatra yē pradhānēśūtraraḥanaśaktisamanvitāḥ suprasiddhatatvamdhāya (?) tatkalīkā api tīrtham pravartamānās tatra 'dhikṛitā(h; etad ēva darśayann āha: ahavē 'ty-ādi sugamaṃ.*

⁸³ Or 60 including *marāṇavisāhī* (*Svi. V.* between 23 and 24) and 65 with the addition of the five names in PS.

pāṇnas, or pratyēkabuddhas⁸⁴ [16] as he possessed scholars endowed with the correct fourfold knowledge. Estimating these exaggerated figures at their true value, let us consider the 59 titles.⁸⁵ Of the texts now enumerated as parts of the Siddhānta the titles of the four pāṇnas 25, 27, 28, 34, of the sixth chhēdasūtra 40 and of two of the mūlasūtras, 44 and 46 are omitted. Of these the four pāṇnas are to be regarded as modern productions and later than the N; the titles of the sixth chhēdasūtra 40 and of the fourth mūlasūtra 46 are not certain; and, finally, the title of the fourth mūlasūtra 44, āvaśyaka, has been already mentioned. See on p. 11. The remaining 27 titles of texts of the present Siddhānta not belonging to the aṅgas (13 fg.) are one and all contained in the above list, though in a different order of arrangement and without any statement in reference to the names of their groups. Some, however, belong together as groups — the first four and the last five upāṅgas (Nos. 5—8 and 55—59) and the five chhēdasūtras (Nos. 31—35). Besides these the list contains 32⁸⁶ additional names which are not directly represented by texts in the existing Siddhānta. Among these there are five for which corresponding sections in the S. can be shown, thus: — 10 pamāyappamāyam, 17 pōrisimāḍalain, 18 mamḍalappavēṣō, 38 dīvasāgarapannatti [, 64 tēyaganisagga]. [17] In the Siddhānta there are references to 12 others; thus for 4, 36 (and 38), 40—49; 8 others are mentioned elsewhere 9, 21, 51, [60—64]; and finally there is a whole list of titles (12 or 13), which cannot be attested from any source whatsoever, thus 2, 3, 19, 22, 23, 24 (a. b., including maraṇavisōhī — 27, 50, 52, 53). It is of special interest that we find statements concerning a whole series of texts held to belong to the kālīam suam in old kārīkā verses. The source of these statements is not further attested. These texts were a special object of riper study at the time of the composition of these verses. Of Nos. 40—49, 51 (50—53 ?), 60—64 it is said that they were designed for the eleventh to the eighteenth year of study: 40—44 for the eleventh, 45—49 for the twelfth, 51 (50—53 ?) for the thirteenth, 60—64 for the fourteenth to the eighteenth year; the nineteenth year forming the conclusion with the study of the dīṭṭhivāda. Cf. my remarks on pp. 225, 344, 345.

This list at least opens up to us a wide perspective for the literature existing at the time of the composition of N. It is certainly very remarkable that N is itself cited in this list (as No. 11). Is this the only work of the author inserted by him in the list? Or did he avail himself of this capital opportunity to procure a resting place for other of his productions? If in reality Dēvarddhigani, the nominal redactor of the Siddhānta, is to be regarded as the author of N, then the discrepancy between this list and the existing Siddh., is especially remarkable. [18] Did all these differences arise after his time? And is the division into the groups uvaṅga, pāṇna, etc., or the names uvaṅga, pāṇna themselves, etc., to be ascribed to a period subsequent to his? In the case of the pāṇna this is evidently very probable.

Next follows the aṅgapaviṭṭham 13, the thirteenth group of the suanānaparokkham, which strictly belongs before the anaṅgapaviṭṭham. It is called duvālasaviham and then the 12 aṅgas, āyārō to dīṭṭhivāḍ (aṅga 5 as vivāhapannattī) are enumerated in order. This in turn is followed by the detailed statement of contents and extent of the 12 aṅgas, which (see p. 284 ff.) recurs in identical form but in greater detail in aṅga 4. This entire statement has been given on p. 257. We have already seen (pp. 284 ff. 349, 352, 361, 363, and 3) that its appearance in aṅga 4 was secondary, and that here we frequently meet with the older readings. When in the insertions in the aṅgas made by the redactor (even in aṅga 4) any reference is paid to his enumeration,

⁸⁴ pratyēkabuddhā api tāvaṃta ēva syuh; — aṭṭai 'kē vyōhakahatē: ēkaikasyā 'pi tīrthakritas tīrthē parimāṇāni prakīrṇakāni, tatkāriṇām aparimāṇatvāt; kēvalam pratyēkabuddharachitāny ēva prakīrṇakāni drashtavyāni tatparimāṇēna pratyēkabuddhaparimāṇasya pratipādanāt. This explanation of kē is designed to effect a perfectly comprehensible limitation, but cannot be brought in agreement with the context. The title pratyēkabuddha is of great interest. It occurs also in the aṅgas, see pp. 265, 334. Similar statements to the above are found in the scholiast on the first pāṇna. See p. 435. In the Viśvāramritasaṅgraha is quoted the following interesting citation from the pīṭha of a kalpabhāṣya: suttam gaṇahararāyāyam tāhēva pattēyabuddharāyāyam cha | suyakēvaliṇā rāyāyam abhinna dasapuvvīṇā rāyāyam ||

⁸⁵ Or 60 and 65, see p. 15, note 2.

⁸⁶ Or 33 and 38.

the citation is from the Nandī and not from aṅga 4. The Nandī and not aṅga 4 is therefore indisputably the source whence these citations are drawn. But whether or no the account here is really to be regarded as the source whence came the account in aṅga 4, appears to me to be still *in dubiis*. This assumption is rendered improbable by the fact there are very great differences in these accounts, not to mention that that of aṅga 4 is much more detailed. If, however, we regard the account in the N. as the source, then that in aṅga 4 is secondary and enlarged after it had effected a lodgment in that aṅga. [19] But on the other hand it is a perfectly legitimate conclusion that the account in N. and in aṅga 4 were drawn from a common source now no longer extant. Finally, it must be stated that the entire section in N. almost gives me the impression of being a secondary insertion. The fact that it too contains the most wonderful statements, called into existence by the effort of pure fancy (cf. especially the statements concerning aṅga 6 and aṅga 12), cannot readily be reconciled with that tradition which regards the Nandī as the work of Dēvarddhigaṇi, the nominal redactor of the whole Siddhānta. Dēvarddhigaṇi would have expressed himself in a more sober, definite way, and would not have given rein to such monstrous figments of the imagination. We must not, however, suppress the fact that the Pākshikasūtram takes no notice of this detailed statement of contents and extent⁸⁷ of the 12 aṅgas, but limits itself merely to the enumeration of the twelve names.⁸⁸

Then, too, the general observations in reference to the duvālasaṅgaṃ gaṇipidagaṃ, which are joined on to the account of each of the twelve aṅgas, are found here in just the same form as in aṅga 4; cf. pp. 368, 369. The five kārīkās form the conclusion. They contain statements in reference to the correct [20] attainment of the suanāpam; the last one reads: *suttatthō khalu paḍhamō, bhō nijjuttī(!)-misiō bhapiō | taññu niravasēsō, ēsa vihi hōi aṇuōē || 5 ||* According to Leumann, the reference in Bhag. 25, 3 cites this verse as the conclusion of this entire account (*jāva suttatthō . . . aṇuōē*). The nijjuttī is also mentioned.

Next follow some statements which are not noticed by the author of the avachūri, from which we may conclude that they were inserted at a later period, though they may in reality be of great age. They comprise a section in prose in reference to the aṇunnā, anujnā, and a renewed repetition of the titles of the 12 aṅgas and a reference to Usabhasēṇa, as the original source of the aṇunnā. See p. 15.

The commentary, which I have before me (avachūri), the work of an anonymous author, is very short. The Calcutta edition contains the commentary of Malayagiri, according to Leumann. We have already seen that a *Nandivṛitti* is frequently cited — see pp. 353, 354 (*Vichārāmṛitasamgraha*), 360 (*Abhayadēva*), — the citations from it being partly in Prākṛit (gāthā), partly in Sanskrit. In the scholium on the *Gaṇadharasārddhaśata* (see pp. 371, 458) Sarvarājagaṇi ascribes a *nandivṛitti* to the old Haribhadra, who is said to have died 75 years after Dēvarddhigaṇi. The author of the *Vichārāmṛitasamgraha* appears to ascribe such a *nandivṛitti* to Umāsvāmivāchaka who was about 50 years older (see pp. 371, 372). He says (fol. 3^a of the Berlin MS.) *tathā chā 'ha bhagavān Umāsvāmivāchakaḥ: samyagdarśana-jñāna-chāritrāṇi mokṣamārga itī Naṃdivṛittan, vāchakaśabdaś cha pūrvagataśrutadharē rūḍhō, yathā: pūrvagataṃ sūtram anyach cha vinēyān vāchayaṃti 'ti vāchakāḥ, Naṃdivṛittan: [21] vādī ya . .* (see p. 353^a). Such statements as these in reference to commentaries of so great an age are of great importance as regards the age of the Nandī.

XLII. The *Anuyōgadvārasūtram* is an encyclopædic review of everything worth knowing,⁸⁹ composed in anuōgas, questions and answers. It is composed in prose though there is

⁸⁷ I call attention here to the mention of the name Bhaddabāhu on aṅga 12, pp. 360, 367. It is noteworthy that he appears in the same gradation (though last in order) as the names Daśāra, Baladēva, Vāsudēva, Harivaṃsa, and consequently as a mythological personage.

⁸⁸ This is introduced in just the same manner as the previous one. See pp. 10, 13: — *namō tēsiṃ khamāsama-ṇāṇaṃ jēhiṃ imaṃ vāsiyāṃ duvālasaṅgaṃ gaṇipidagaṃ, taṃ jahā . .* and concludes in the same way: *savvēhiṃ pi ēyammi duvālasaṅgē gaṇipidagē bhagavāntē sasuttē . .*

⁸⁹ An account of the method of defining and explaining the *Sastras*, Kash.

a frequent admixture of gāthās. There are no subdivisions though a systemic arrangement prevails throughout.

As in the Nandī, the nāṇam is especially treated of here. The text commences forthwith with an enumeration of the same five forms of the nāṇa, which we find also in N. Abhinibōhiya°, suya°, ōhi°, maṇapayya°, kēvala°. The second form, the suyanāṇam, śrutajñānam, is the one *par excellence* which is discussed further on in the Anny. The subdivisions of the suyan. are indicated by means of the same names which we find in N, though the gradations are somewhat different; see p. 11. It is divided into aṅgapaviṭṭham and into aṅgabāhiram,⁹⁰ the latter into kāliyam and ukkāliyam; the latter of which again into āvassayam and āvassayavārittam.

Here in the An., the āvassayam alone is discussed. The author states that he desires to explain his work according to the following four points of view, though the real reason for this statement is not clear: āva-ṇaṁ nikkhivissāmi, suam (śrutam) ni°, khamdham ni° ajjhayaṇam ni°. After a kārīkā inserted here the author proceeds to a discussion of the āvassayam *per se*, [22] which is chaṭṭvīham, viz.: — nāma°, ṭhavaṇa°, dāvva°, bhāva°, respectively, the latter two being distinguished from the others as āgama° and nō-āgama°. At the end the synonyms (ēgaṭṭhiyā nānūghōsā nāṇavāṇaṇā nāmadhiyyā) are stated as follows: — āvassayam, avassakaraniyya, dhuvaṇiggahō, visōhi ya | ajjhayaṇachhakkavaggō nāō ārāhaṇa maggō || samaṇēṇa sāvāṇa ya avassakāyavvayaṁ havaī jamhā | amto ahō-nisassa ya tamhā āvassayam nāma ||⁹¹ This designation as ajjhayaṇachhakkavagga points unequivocally to a definite text, divided into 6 adhyāyanas. By the 6 adhyāyanas we may understand the six kinds of āvassayam enumerated in the Nandī, above p. 11, and occurring below (see pp. 23, 24). These names as well as all the other synonyms of āvassaya belong to the domain of ethical, ritualistic or disciplinary matters. Our text, however, touches upon those subjects only occasionally.

Next to the enumeration of the synonyms of the āvassayam come the suyam and the khamdha, two of the four sections. To these we find that the same groups and sub-groups are ascribed as to the āvassayam; and an enumeration of the synonyms of each forms the conclusion. The verse containing the synonyms of the suyam is as follows: — [23] sua-sutta-gaṇṭha-siddhamta-sāsaṇē āṇā vayaṇa uvaṇṣē | pannaṇa āgamē a ēgaṭṭhā payyavā suttē⁹² ||, that containing the synonyms of khamdha: — gaṇakāē a nikāē khamdhē vaggē taḥēva rāsi a | puṇjē piṇḍē niaṇē saṁghāō āula samūhē || The first names for "sacred text" refer then to the contents, the second to the extent. In one subdivision of khamdha, the nō-āgama° bhāvakkhamdhē, the following explanation is found (sē kiṁ taṁ nō-ā°): — ēsīm⁹³ chēva sāmāiya-m-āiyāṇam chhaṇham ajjhayaṇaṇam samudāyas nūṭisamāgamēṇam āvassayasubbhāvakkhamdhē labbhatē, sē taṁ nō-āgama° bhāvakkhamdhē. By this is meant in all probability the connection of the totality of all the above cited six adhyāyanas of the āvaśyaka, sāmāyika, etc.

The last of these four sections designed to explain the āvassayam, refers *ex professo* to the ajjhayaṇam, and begins with an enumeration of these six ajjhayaṇas. A kārīkā is first introduced,⁹⁴

⁹⁰ There is unfortunately no enumeration of the aṅgabāhira texts in An.

⁹¹ — Viśeṣ. I, 871 f. I call attention to the following from the scholiast: — sāmāyikādi-shaḍadhyāyanakalāpātmaṭvād adhyāyanashaḍvargaḥ; tatthā abhiprēṭtārthasiddhaḥ samyag-upāyatvaṁ nyāyō, mokṣhārādhana-hēṭutvād ārādhana, tatthā mokṣhapuraprāpakatvād ēva mārgaḥ; — ahōrātrasya madhyē.

⁹² Between āṇa, ājñā and vayaṇa one MS. has utti which, however, throws the metre out of order; ukṭir vachanam vāgyōgaḥ scholiast; instead of suttē, sūtravishayē, we expect suē, śrutē, which, however, does not suit the metre.

⁹³ sāmādiamādinam (!) A; eṣām ēva prastutāvaśyakabhēdānām sāmāyikādinām śhaṇṇām adhyāyanānām samudāyāḥ, samudāyasya samiti(r) nairamṭaryēṇa, milanā, . . samāgamas, tēna nishpannō ya āvaśyakaśrutaskandhaḥ sa bhāvakkhamdha iti labhyatē.

⁹⁴ āvassayassa paṇi imē atthābhigārā bhavanti, taṁ: sāvajjajōgaviratī ukkittāṇā gūṇavatō a paḍivatī | khaliassa nindapā vāpa-tigīohobhā gupadhāraṇā chēva || āvassayassa ēsō piṇḍatthō vanniō samāseṇam | ettō ekkekkaṁ pupa ajjhayaṇaṇa kittasāmi || taṁ: sāmāyam, chaṭṭvissathaō, vaṇḍapaṇam, paḍikkamaṇam, kāṇsaggaṇam paḍcha kkhāṇam; tatthā paḍhamajjhayaṇaṇam sāmāyam, tassa paṇi imē chaṭṭāri apuṇagādārā, taṁ: uvakkamē, nikkhēvē, apugamē, naye.

which may have found its way from here to painna 1 [24] — (see p. 133a), — , though both places may have drawn this verse from a common source. This verse states in brief compass the contents of each of the six ajjh. Then follow again the six names as in the Nandī. Next the first one, the sāmāyam, is designated expressly as the one which is treated of in the An. To it are allotted four anuṅgadārās, sections for questions related to the subject-matter. These sections are uvakkamē, nikkhēvē, anugamē, nayē, and under this division the rest of the text is divided, the uvakkamē taking the lion's share. In a MS. which I have before me, ms. or. fol. 762, = A, which contains 56 foll., the uvak. embraces foll. 5^a to 53^b. That which preceded was on foll. 1^b to 5^a; nikkhēva is on three leaves, to 56^b; anugamē is despatched in ten lines on 56^b and naē in six.

On p. 22 I called attention to the lack of harmony between the names of the six āvaśyaka groups and the actual contents of our text which purports to discuss them. This lack of harmony, which is increased by the table of contents adduced for each one in particular, is so great, that I have in vain attempted a solution of the mystery as to how our text can have the face to assert that it discusses the first of these, the sāmāyam, or the sāvajjaṅgavirati.⁹⁵ A genuine discussion is hardly touched upon, the real subject-matter being special topics pertaining to [25] matters of dogma and speculation, or to general matters of cosmological, anthropological, linguistic or literary interest.

Aside from this lack of harmony, another fact is in itself likely to excite the hostility of surprise: the word sāmāya is used as the title of the first āvaśyaka, but in reference to the aṅgas we had learned to employ it in quite a different signification, viz.: — as the title of aṅga 1, whose contents it is true, might be characterized as sāvajjaṅgavirati. The double use of one and the same word to designate two different *termini technici* is truly a matter to be wondered at. See 243 fg., 342 fg.

The contents of the sections uvakkama, etc., is very varied and in part extremely interesting; and the form, in which it is encased so to speak, is highly remarkable. The statements are heterogeneously arranged, and the connecting thread being purely external, there is no logical consecution. Everything is divided according to the fashion prevailing in the Siddhānta, into groups, species, sub-species, etc. The uvakkama e. g. is divided into ānupuvvī (in A. on fol. 5^a to 15^b), nāmam (to 27^a), pamānam (to 51^b), vattavvayā (to 52^a), atthāhigāra (ib.), samavayāra (to 53^b). And the ānupuvvī is in turn divided into nāmānupuvvī, ṭhavanā°, davvā°, khetṭā°, kālā°, ukkittanā°, gaṇanā°, samṭhanā°, sāmāyārī-ā°, bhāvānupuvvī.

Without paying any greater attention to the stereotyped expressions of the text [26] than is necessary to mark the different passages where the statement in question occurs, I give here, according to the arrangement of the text, some of the most important data contained in it and at the end, a *resumé* of the results of interest for the history of literature. It may be prefaced that the nom. sing. masc. I decl. ends now in *a*, now in *e*, and that in the verses, the nominative and case forms in general are frequently represented by the theme. In the case of feminine nouns thematic ā ī ū are shortened.

A species of davvāvassayam (A 2^b) is divided into lōiyam, kuppāvayaṇiyam and lōutta-riyam. The first is referred to the usages of the *proceres*, who appear in the usual enumeration that we have met with in the aṅgas: jē imē rūl-°sara-talavara-kōḍambiya⁹⁶-māḍambiya-ibha-setṭhi-sēṇāvai-satthavāhapabhiḥ.⁹⁷ The kuppāvayaṇiyam describes in the following enumeration

⁹⁵ In the atthāhigāra section of the uvakkama in one MS. the contents of all the six ajjhayaṇas is seemingly ascribed to the sāmāyam alone. The actual facts of the case are different, see p. 37n.

⁹⁶ On talavara, see p. 38 fg. 313; kōḍambiya from kuṭamba, the older form of kuṭumba, see *Ind. Streifen* 1, 284. Pañchadaṇḍachh. p. 41; yasya pārśvata āsannam aparām grāmanagarādikaṁ nā 'sti tat sarvataśchhinnaśāśraya-viśesharūpaṁ māḍambam uchyatē tasyā 'dhipatir māḍambikaḥ.

⁹⁷ . . muhadhōyaṇa-damṭapakkhāṇa-tella-phaṇiḥ-siddhatthaya-hariyāliya-addāga-dhūva-puppha-mallagari-dhatambōlavattha-m-āyāṇiḥ davvāvassayāṇiḥ kareṇti taḥ paṇḍhha rāyakulaṁ vā devakulaṁ vā sabham vā pavani (prapām?) vā āramam vā uyyāṇam vā niggaḥhamti.

the character of those sects which do not share the Jaina belief: — *jê imê⁹⁹ charaga-chîriya-chammakhamdiya-bhichohhamdaga-pamduramga* - *Gôyama-govvaiya* - *gihidhamma-dhammachim* - [27] *taga-aviruddha-viruddha-vuḍḍhasāvagapabhiyaḥ pāsamdatthā*, and states that these: *Imḍassa vā Khamḍassa vā Ruddassa vā Sivassa vā Vēsamanassa vā dēvassa vā nāgassa vā jakkhassa vā bhāyassa vā Mugundassa vā Ayyā vā Koṭṭakiriyaḥ vā⁹⁹ uvalēvaṇa-sammayyaṇā* - "varisaṇa - dhūvapupphagamādhamaḷlāyāim dāvāvassayaīm karēmti. The *lōguttariyam* finally is referred to the merely external Jaina-yōgin: *jê imê samanaḡunamukka-jōgi chakkāyanirārukampā hayā iva uddamā gayā iva nirāmkusā ghatthā matthā tuppoṭṭhā¹⁰⁰ pamdurapaḍapāuraṇā¹ jīṇaṇam aṇṇāṇē*(*anājnyā*) *sachchhaṇḍam vihariṇaṇam ubhayō-kālam āvassagassa uvatthamti*.

[28] In the *bhāvāvassayaṁ* (intellectual exercise) we read in the passage attributing a similar division to the *lōiyam*: *puvvaṇhē Bhārahama*, *avaraṇhē Rāmāyaṇam*,² and as regards the *kuppāvayaniam*, it is said of the same sects as above (*charagachiriya*^o) i. e. that they *ijja-mjali hōma-japa-umdurukka-namukkāra-m-āiyāim bhāvāvassayaīm karēmti*.³ The *davvasuyam* is characterized⁴ as *pattaya-potthayalihiyam* and as *amḡayam*, *voṁḡayam*, *kīḡayam*, *vālayam*, *vakkayam*.

The works of the Brahminical literature cited by me *ad Bhag.* 2, 243 are quoted in the case of the *lōiyam nō-āgamaḥ bhāvasuyam* (see above, p. 9), where the same list is adduced from the *Nandī*, though in somewhat greater detail.

⁹⁹ *dhātī*(*p*)*vāhakālī* *samto yē bhikṣhām charaṁti tē charakāḥ*; *rathyāpatitachiraparidhānās chtrikāḥ*; *charma-paridhānās charmakhaṇḡkāḥ*; *yē bhikṣhām ēva bhujjātē na tu svaparigrihitām gōdugdhādikām tē bhikṣhātāḥ*, *Sugataśāsanasthā ity anyē*; *pāṇḍuramgā bhasmoddhūlitagāttrāḥ*; *vichitrapāḍapatanādiśakṣākālāpayukta-varātakamōlikādiobarchitavriṣabhakōpāyataḥ* (?) *kapābhikṣhāgrāhiṇō Gautamā*(*h*); cf. *Kapābhuj*, *Kapāda*!); *gocharyānukārīṇō gōvretikāḥ*, *tē hi "vayam api kila tiryakshu vasāma"* *iti bhāvaṇām bhāvayaṁtō gobhir nirgachamti*(*bhiḥ*) *saha nirgachamti sthītābhis tishthamti śmābhir upaviśamti bhujjānābhis tathai 'va tripapat-trpaushpaphalādi bhujjātē*, *tad uktaḥ*: *gāvīhi samam niggaṇapavēśathāṇasaṇi pakarimti | bhujjānti jaḥ gāvī tirichhavāsam vibhāvaṁtē ||*; *grihasthadharma ēva śrēyaṁ iti . . grihidharmās, tathā cha tadanusāriṇaṁ vacaḥ*: *grihāśramasamō dharmō na bhūtō na bhaviṣyati | tam pālayamti yē dhitrāḥ, klivāḥ pāshamḡam āsritā ity ||*; *Yājñavalkyaprabhṭipitriṣhipraṇṭhadharmasamhitās chintayaṁti . . dharmachintakāḥ*; *dēvatā-kṣhītā-mātāpūtri-tiryagādīnām avirodhena vinayakāritvād aviruddhā vainayikāḥ*; *pūṇyapāpapaṇālōkādyanabhyupagama-parā akriyāvādīnō viruddhā*(*h*), *sarvapaśhamābhiḥ saha viruddhachāritvāt*; *prathamam ēvā "dyatīrthakarakālē samutpannatvāt, prāyo vridhdhākālē dīkṣhāpratipattē cha vridhdhās tēpasāḥ*; *śrāvākāḥ brāhmaṇāḥ . . anyē tu vridhdhāśrāvaka ity ēkam ēva padam vrāhmaṇavāchakatvēna vyāchakṣhātē* (Buddha is therefore not referred to here! (see *Bhag.* 2, 214); and *AC^o R* read *vuḍḍha*, *BC^o* alone having *vuḍḍha*); *pāshamḡam vrataṁ, tatra tishthamti 'ti pāshamḡasthāḥ*; — on *Gôyama* fg. see *Anupap.* § 73. See chap. 15 in *Varāhamihira's Brihajjātaka* (*pravrajyā-yōgādhyāya*), or *Laghujāt.* 9, 13), *Ind. Stud.* 2, 287, where also *vridhdhāśrāvaka*.

⁹⁹ *Mukundō Baladēvaḥ*; *Ārya prasāntarūpā Durgā*; *sai 'va mahishārūḡhā tatkuṭṭanaparā Koṭṭakriyā*; *atrō 'pachārād ihdrādisābdēna tad-āyatanam apy uchyatē*; the same arrangement of the gods, except *Mukunda*, occurs also in the *Bhagavatī* 3, 1, 66; see my treatise 2, 113, 1, 436.

¹⁰⁰ See p. 161 on *Hāla* 459 *Bhuv*.

¹ According to all appearance this speaks against the connection of the text with the *Śvētāmbaras* and refers it to the *Digambaras* [cf. *Bhag.* 2, 187n, 321, where I have partially misunderstood the passage].

² See *Bhag.* 2, 243n, my treatise on the *Rāmāy.* p. 34; *lōkē hi Bharata-Rāmāyaṇayōr vāchanam śravaṇam vā pūrvāparāḡpāyōr ēva rūḡham*.

³ *ijjā yāgab*, *athavā dēśbhāshāyām ijjē 'ti* (*iṣṭēti* B) *mātā* (!), *tasyā namaskāraavidhau . . undurukka tti dēśvachanaṭa umdu mukham, rukham vṛishabhādisābdakaraṇam, dēvatāḍipuratō vṛishabhagarjitādikaraṇam*. — B has also *iṭṭhamjali* in the text; this is manifestly caused by a misunderstanding of the ligatures *shṭ*, *shv* and *jj*. See Vol. XVI. *Ind. Stud.* 2n; *ijja*, *mātā* is to be referred either to root *yaj* or to *āryā*.

⁴ *pat*(*t*)*rakṣṇi* *talatālyādisambamdhini*, *tatsaṅghātānishpannās tu pustakās, tatas cha patrakṣṇi cha pustakās cha, tesu likhitam*; *athavā pōtam vastraṁ* (see *I. S.* Vol. 16, p. 155) *pat*(*t*)*rakṣṇi cha tesu likhitam*; — *amḡayam haṁsagabbhādi*; *haṁsaḡ patamḡah, garbhas tu tannivaritakōśkārō . . tadutpannam sūtram amḡajam uchyatē*; *ādisābdah svabhēdaprakhyāpanaparah*; — *voṁḡayam* (*bo^o R*, *po^o A*) *karpāsa-m-ādi*, *Ind. Stud.* XVI. 111; *voṁḡam vamanṭphalaṁ tasmāj jātaṁ voṁḡajam*; *phalaḥ vamani, tasyāḡ phalaḥ phalaḥ karpāsāśrayakōśakarūpaḥ*; — *kīṭj jātaṁ kīṭajam sūtram*; is fivefold: *patṭē paṭṭasūtram* (detailed citation from the *vridhdhavyākhyā*), *Malā Malayavishayotpannam*, *amśuē*, *Chīpamśuē Chīnavishayē*, *kimirāḡē*; — *lōmabhyō jātaṁ vāḡajam*; is fivefold: *unniē aurnikam, uṭṭhiē aushtrikam, miyalōmaē*, *kutavē* (*kō^o*) *umdururōmanishpannam, kittisē ūṇāḍīnām yad uddhari tam*; — *vakkayam* (*vāḡayam A*) *saṇa-m-ādi vakkajam, tatrā 'tasasūtram Mālavakāḍiprasiddham*. There is no direct statement in reference to the relations of these stuffs, consisting of down, cotton, silk (from *Malaya* and *China*), hair (wool, skin), plants (hemp, flax) to the *śrutam*. Their use as paper, etc. for MSS. is doubtless here referred to as in the case of *patlaya*^o.

[29] In the enumeration of the names from âyâra to diṭṭhivâa (aṅga 5 as vivâhapannatti) the duvâlasuṅgaṃ gaṇipidagam takes the place of the louttariyam, etc.

In the case of the khetṭanupuvvi, the groups of the aḥlôlê (Rayanappabhâ to Tamatamap-pabhâ), tiriyaḥlôlê (Jambuddivê to Sayambhuramaṇê), uḍḍhalôlê (Sôhammê to Îsipabhârâ) are enumerated, and in the case of the kâlâṇu°, the gradations of the divisions of time from samâê to savvaddhâ. As we learn from a second discussion of the subject in a passage later on (see pp. 34, 37), we have to deal here with a progression by 84's and not by 10's. Cf. Bhagav. 1, 427, above, pp. 268, 411, 412. In the case of the ukkittanâṇu° we find an enumeration of the 24 Jinas.

Under *nâman* we find all manner of linguistic, grammatical and other statements. Immediate dependence upon Sanskrit literature is here very clear; thus *e. g.* as examples of monosyllables are cited the following four — hrîḥ śrîḥ dhîḥ strî (*sic*) in the Sanskrit form, manifestly because they (cf. Piṅgala's chhandas 1, 12 *Ind. Stud.* VIII, 217, 218) are used in Sanskrit grammar as customary (mûrdhâbhishikṭa) examples. The same fondness for Sanskrit may be observed in the metrical rules concerning gender, statements in reference to the finals of nouns, (â, î, û, o and am, im, um), saṃdhi (âgama, lova, pagadi *i. e.* prâkṛiti, and vikâra) and the five classes of words. For some of the names of these classes (*e. g.* nâmikam, naipâtikam, âkhyâtikam aupasargikam, miśram) and the examples⁵ of others, the Sanskrit is used. The sacred author makes, ludicrously enough, [30] a wilful error of a slight character. He cites, besides, other examples of saṃdhi; vadhû ūhatê vadhûhatê, but Sanskrit has no nominative or rather no form vadhû. The nomin. is vadhûs.

In mentioning a subspecies of *chhanâmê* (shan°) the twelve aṅgas are again enumerated in detail (aṅga 5 again as vivâhapannatti), and the navapuvvadhara *jâva* choddasapuvvadhara mentioned (see Bhag. 2, 318). Under the head of all manner of aërial and heavenly phenomena the eclipses of the moon and sun are referred to.⁶

Under the head of *sattanâmê* we find a very thoroughgoing account of the seven svara's⁷ interwoven with all sorts of gâthâs; under *aṭṭhanâmê* a similar account of the eight cases (vibhatti), under *navanâmê* of the nine poetical (kavva)-rasas. Each of the latter is illustrated by a corresponding gâthâ. See *Ind. Stud.* XVI, 154-58.

The following countries are enumerated under the head of a subspecies of *dasanâmê*, the khetṭasamjôga : — Mâgahaê, Malavaê, Sôratṭhaê Marahaṭṭhaê, Kumkapaê, Kôsalaê. If the first two of these names recall [31] the pre-eminent position occupied by Magadha and Mâlava at one time in India — see *Ind. Streifen* 1, 300, 344, — the two following names⁸ refer *par excellence* to Jainism. That the list is limited to these six names, whereas in aṅga 5 it embraced 16 and 25½ in upânga 4, is a feature of significance which is probably based upon genuine knowledge of the facts. The list in aṅga 5 and in upânga 4 has no securer a foundation than that of a stereotyped literary tradition.

In another of these subdivisions, the *ṭhavanâpamâṇê*, which contains a discussion of the seven kinds of formation of names, we find an enumeration of the 28 nakkhattas, still begin-

⁵ Thus saṃdhi : âgamâṇam . . padmâni payâmsi, lôvâṇam . . tē atra tē 'tra, paṭō atra paṭō 'tra, payatiē . . agni ētau, paṭō imau, sâlē ētē, mâlē imē, vikâreṇam . . damdasya agram damdâgram, sâ âgatâ sâgatâ, dadhi idham dadhidam, nadi ūhatê nadhūhatê, madhu udakam madhūdakam, vadhû (!) ūhatê vadhūhatê — then, after mentioning the five classes of words, the examples to illustrate them are given in Sanskrit : — aśva iti nâmikam, khalv iti naip, dhâvati 'ty âkhy, pari 'ty aup., samyata iti miśram.

⁶ abbhâ ya abbhârukkâ samjâ gamdhavvanagarâ ya ukkâ vâsâ disâdôghâ vijjū gajjam nigghâya jvâ, jakkhâlittâ (yakshâdīptakâni, nabhodriyamânâgnipisâchâh) dhūmî mahî (dhūmikâh mahikâh) raigghâyâ (raja-udghâtâh, rajasvalâ diśâh) chamdôvarâgâ sūrôvarâgâ chamdaparivêśâ sūrapa° paḍiohamdayâ paḍisūrayâ, inda-dhanṭi, udagamachhâ ('matsyâh, indradhanuḥkhamdâni) kavhasiâ (kapihasitâny akasmân nabhasi jvaladabhlma-sabdarūpâni) amôhâ (amoghâh sūryabimbâd adhaḥ kadâchid upalabhyamânaśakatoddhisamsthitâsyâmadirekhâh) vâsâ . . . The same enumeration is found also Bhagav. Ed. p. 224 and in aṅga 3, 10, according to Leumann.

⁷ See my treatise on the *Pratijñasūtram*, pp. 109, 110.

⁸ On Sôratṭhâ cf. Kalpas. Therâv. 9.

ing with *kṛittikā*, though with their secondary titles (*pussa*, *jetṭhā*, *mūla*, *savaṇa*, *dhaṇiṭṭhā*, *bhaddavayā*). Cf. *Ind. Stud.* X 285, 16, 288, 415. The patronymic formation of eight different names, one for each born under a definite *nakshatra*, is here specially treated of and also the names in: *diṇṇa*, *dhamma*, *samma*, (*śarman*), *dēva*, *dāsa*, *sēna*, *rakkhīa*,⁹ thus, *e. g.*, *kattia*, *kattidinna* (*kitti*¹⁰), *kattidhamma*, *kattisamma* etc. Furthermore the patronymics from the names of each of their 28 divinities;¹⁰ thus *aggiē*, *aggidinnē*, *aggidhammē* etc. All this proves *eo ipso* that this kind of names was very popular at the date of the composition of the text itself, or rather at the date of its sources.

This is for the latter a [32] factor of synchronistical importance (see p. 40) since these *nakshatra* names appear to have been exceedingly popular at the period of the *grihyasūtra*, and even of Pāṇini. See my treatise on the *nakshatra* 2, 317 fg. As examples of patronymic *kula*-names *Ikkhāgē* (*Aikshvāka*), *Nāyē* (the *kulam* of *Mahāvira*) and *Kōravvē* are cited. The following appear as *pāsaṇḍa* in the same connection: — *samaṇē paṇḍaraṃgē*, *bhikkū kāvālīē*, *tāvase* and *parivvāyāē*, s. *Bhag.* 2, 218¹¹. The scholiast explains *bhikkhū* by *Buddhadarśanāśritāḥ* and on the other hand asserts that there is a five-fold division of *samaṇa*: *niggaṇṭha*-*Sakka* (*Sākya*)-*tāvasa*-*gēruya* *ājīvā* with which *Abhayadēva* too is acquainted (see p. 281¹²). He connects the *paṇḍurāṃga* with the *naiyāyika*. (But cf. above, p. 26.)

Under the head of *bhāvapamāṇa*, as a species of *pamāṇanāma*, the composition of words is first treated of. There are seven forms of this, the examples of the first form being given (see pp. 29, 30) in Sanskrit, *vis.*: — 1. *daṃḍa*, examples: *daṃtās cha oshṭhaṃ cha daṃtoshṭhaḥ*, *stanau cha udaraṃ cha stanōdaram*, . . *vastrapātraṃ*, . . *aśvamahishau*, . . *ahinakulaṃ*, 2. *bahuvrīhi*, 3. *kammadhāraya*, 4. *digu*, 5. *tappurisa*, 6. *avvayībhāva*, and — 7. *ēkasēsa*, the plural as a collection of several units (there is no dual). The eight-fold *taddhitas* follow the compounds: — *kammaṃ 1 sippa 2 silōē 3 saṃjōya 4 samīvaō 5 a saṃjūhē 6 i issariā 7 'vachchēṇa 8 ya taddhitānāmaṃ tu aṭṭhavihaṃ* ||

It is peculiar that among these examples there are almost as many of primary as of secondary formation and in fact [33] even compounds.¹¹ The commentary explains this peculiarity, which is to be ascribed to actual ignorance (cf. the wilful blunder, p. 30) as follows: — *iha taddhitasābdēna taddhitaprapṭihētubhūtō 'rthō grihyatē, tatō yatrā 'pi tunnāē taṃtuvāē ity-ādaḥ taddhitapratyayō na dṛīsyatē tatrā 'pi taddhētubhūtārthasya vidyamānatvāt taddhitajātvaṃ* (perhaps merely *taddhitatvaṃ*) *siddhaṃ bhavati*.

It is especially interesting that here *saṃjūha*, *saṃyūtha* are explained by the scholiast as *grāmtharachanē*, so that the examples cited in the text are to be regarded as titles of literary compositions: — *Taraṃgavatī*, *Malayavatī*, *Sattānusattī* (*attā*¹²) and *Bimdu* are such names! *dhātūē* is said by the text to be the third group of *bhāvapamāṇa*. It is explained in Sanskrit in the following most singular fashion: — *bhū sattāyāṃ parasmaibhāṣā, edha vṛiddhaḥ, spardha saṃharshē, gādhri pratishthāliprayōr grāmthē cha, bādhi lōḍanē, sē'ttaṃ dhātūē*. This is nothing more than the beginning of Pāṇini's *dhātupāṭha*; see Westergaard *Radices*, p. 344. The fourth group, *niruttiē*, enumerates in Sanskrit a large number of very peculiar etymologies: *mahyāṃ sētē mahishaḥ, bhramati cha rauti cha bhramarah*, [34] *muhur muhur lasati musalam, kapir iva laṃvate thach* (v. l. are *ghatti*, *bēti*, *sheti*) *cha karōti* (*patati* *cha* is added by BO) *kapitthaṃ, chid iti karōti khallaṃ cha bhavati chikkallaṃ, ūrdhvakarṇa*¹³ *ulūkāḥ, khasya mālā mekhalā*.

⁹ The names in *°bhūti*, cf. *Inda*^o, *Aggi*^o, *Vāyu*^o, are omitted strangely enough.

¹⁰ *ahi* *budhnyā* appears here as *vivadḍhi* (!), cf. *vividhi* in *aṅga* 3 (p. 263); both are forms which are much more corrupted than the *abhi*-*vaddhi* (*°vuddhi*) of the *Sūryaprajñapti*, see *Ind. Stud.* 10, 295.

¹¹ On 1 *tanahāraē* etc., — on 2 *vatthiē*, *tunnāē taṃtuvāē* etc., — on 3 *samaṇē*, *māhaṇē*, — on 4 *rannō sasuraē sālaē*, — on 5 *giriṣsa samivē nagaraṃ girinagaraṃ*, *Vidisaē* s. n. *Vēdisa*, — on 6 *Taraṃgavaikārē* (in BR invariably *kārē*), *Malayavattī* (vāi BR) *kārē*, *sattā* (*attā* BR) *ṇusattikārē*, *bimdukārē* (cf. *dharmabimdu lōkabimdu*, p. 467), — on 7 *ṣarē* *talavarē māḍambīē* . . — on 8 *arahaṇṭamāyā*, *chakkavaṭṭimāyā*, *Baladēvamāyā*, *Vāsudēvamāyā*.

¹² *ūrdhvakarṇa* . . . omitted in B.

Under the head of *paṃāṇa*, that is divided into *daṃva°*, *khetta°*, *kāla°* and *bhāva°*, the measures of space, length of liquids, time and dry measures are treated of *in extenso*. There are frequent citations of lengthy passages of antique colouring, which deal in the form of a dialogue with the instruction of Gōyama (by Mahāvīra) on this point. A very minute doctrine of atoms is also found here, see Bhagav. 2, 256.¹³ The enumeration of the measures of time is similar to that in the *kālānupuvvī*, above page 29, the progression by 84's beginning three gradations after the quinquennial yuga. In the discussion on *paliōvamē* (*palyōpama*) we find inserted a lengthy passage from the *Pannavaṇā* (*thiipaa*) in reference to the duration of the continuance of creatures in their different gradations. This insertion is given in full in some MSS., in others the beginning and conclusion above are given, it being stated that it is a citation from the *Pann*. Not much farther on a question is introduced in the following fashion which does not seem original¹⁴: — *tattha paṃ chōdaṣ* (*chōdakaḥ*, *prērakaḥ*, *prichhakaḥ*) *pannavayam* (*āchāryam*) *ēvaṃ vayasī*, and then follow questions and answers in the usual way introduced by *atthi paṃ . .* and *haṃtā! atthi*. Later on [35] comes the dialogue between Gōyama (and Mahāvīra), clad in an old form which is probably caused by citations.

Under the head of *guṇappamaṇa*, the first group of the *bhāvappam*, the *nānaguṇap*. is said to be four-fold: — *pachchakkhē*, *aṇumāṇē*, *uvamāṇē*, and *āgamē*. The last is divided into *lōiyē* and *lōuttariē*. To the *lōiya* is ascribed everything that is *annāñhiṃ micchhādīṭṭhiēhiṃ sachchamādabuddhimativigappiyam*: — *taṃ jahā*: *Bhārahaṃ Rāmāyaṇaṃ jāva* (BCR, *ēvaṃ A*) *chattāri a vēdā saṃgōvaṃgā*. Here we have a reference to an earlier enumeration. See above, pp. 9, 28. We find that *jam imaṃ arahantēhiṃ bhagavantēhiṃ savvadarisīhiṃ paññaṃ duvāla-saṃgaṃ gaṇipīḍagaṃ*, *taṃ*: *āyārē jāva dīṭṭhivāṣ* is considered to be *lōguttariē*. There are, however, other divisions of the *āgama*; thus, those into *suttā°*, *atthā°* and *tadubhayā°*, or into *attā°*, *aṇamtarā°* and *paramparā°* original doctrine, doctrine that has been directly received, and traditional doctrine (see p. 216). The *charittaguṇapamaṇē* is said to be five-fold, *sāmāiachar.*, *chhēdōvatthāvaṇiachar*. (AC, merely °*thāva* BR) etc., and the *sāmāia-char*. two-fold: *ittariē* and *āvakaḥiē*; s. *Aupap*. pp. 33, 41, and Leumann in the Gloss. According to Leumann's communication this division goes back as far as Bhagav. 8, 2, 25, 7. Is this the reason of the name of the *chhēdasuttas*? Under *nayapamaṇē* three *dīṭṭhamtas*, examples, are discussed in detail; in these an "avisuddhō nēgamō" is carried on from the general to the particular, or to the *visuddhatarō* etc., and finally an advance made to the *visuddhō*. In this section *Pāḍaliputta* appears as the residence of the person who is questioned (*Dēvadatta*, Skr., not °*dinna*!), [36] and as situated in the *dāhiṇaḍḍha* of the *Bharaha khetta*.¹⁵ Under the head of *parimāṇasaṃkh(y)ā* the *kāliasuaparim*, i. e. manifestly the first 11 *aṅgas*,¹⁶ is contrasted with the *dīṭṭhivāṣa*. The point treated of is their mutual division into,¹⁷ and enumeration of

¹³ Where *uddharēṇu* is to be translated by *ūrdhvarēṇu*, *saṇha°*, *ussaṇha°* by *ślakṣṇaślakṣṇikā*, *uchchhla-kṣṇa°*; *saṇha* can be also for *sūkṣma*; see Hem. 1, 118, where, however, we have *ārshē suhumaṇ*. Cf. 2, 75 ? Hāla 732.

¹⁴ While correcting the proof Leumann informs me of its occurrence in the *Nandī*, Nēd. p. 335. It is also found in the *āv. niḥj.* see p. 69.

¹⁵ I notice in passing that the example given on Hem. 2, 150, i. e. *Mahura vva Pāḍaliutte pāsā* is in agreement with the examples in question found in the *Mahābhāṣya*. See Ind. 13, 390. Is this a case of direct borrowing? See above p. 33. *Mathurā* does not play any great part among the Jains, but see the special statements in the beginning of the *Vichārāmritasamgraha* in reference to a *Māthurī vāchanā* (*Skandilāchāryaṇam abhimatā*).

¹⁶ Likewise in *Āvaśy.* 8, 40 (below p. 64); i. e. quite another terminology than that in N. (p. 11) and in the beginning of the *An.* itself (p. 21), where *kāliya* is a subdivision of *anaṅgapaviṭṭha*, or *aṅgabāhira*.

¹⁷ *veḍha*, *veshṭa*, perhaps a group of verses? *nijjuttī* an explanatory section? *annōgadāra* a paragraph *tatra paryavāḥ paryāyā dharmā itī yāvāt*, *tadrūpā saṃkhyā paryavasāṃkhyā* (the meaning of *paryava* here as a preliminary stage of *akkhara* is obscure; *per se* it doubtless denotes the different groups of the alphabet), *sā cha kālikasrute anantaṭaparyāyātmikā dṛashtavyā*, *ekaikasā 'py akārādyakṣharasya tadabhidhēyasya cha jīvādiva-stunaḥ pratyēkam anantaṭaparyāyatrāt*; *ēvaṃ anyatrā 'pi bhāvanā kāryā*; *navaraṃ (1) saṃkhyēyāny akārādyakṣharāṇi*; *dvyādyakṣharasanyōgāḥ saṃkhyēyāḥ saṃghātāḥ*; *suptiṇantāni samaya(?) prasiddhāni vā saṃkhyēyāni padāni*; *gāthādichaturthāṇsarūpāḥ saṃkhyēyāḥ padāḥ*; . . *saṃkhyēyā veshtakāḥ*; *nikṣhēpaniryukty-upodghāṇa-niryukty-sūtrasparśikaniryuktakṣhaṇā trividhā niryuktir* (see p. 38); *vyākhyōpāyabhūtāni tatpadapararūpaṇa-tādāny (?) upakramādīni vā saṃkhyēyāny anyōgadārāṇi*. — The division into *granthas*, or at least this name for the division is not mentioned here. It is really identical with *silōga*.

payyava, akkhara, saṃghāya, pada, pāda, gāhā, silōga, vedha, nijjutti, aṇuḍḍāda, and from here on the enumeration of the uddēsa, ajjhayaṇa, suakkhaṃdha, aṅga in the kāliasua, and of the pāhuḍa pāhuḍiā, pāhuḍapāhuḍiā, vattu in the diṭṭhivāa.

According to the fourth aṅga and Nandī (see p. 354 fg. 681), the latter method of division does not belong to the entire diṭṭhivāa, but merely to the puvvas contained in it; [37] and the evidence of occasional citations made from the puvvas (and found in other works) prove that they were actually so divided. See *ibid.*

vattavvayā is then divided into sasamayav. (sva°), parasamayav. and sasamayaparasamayav. The scholiast cites as an example of the second a passage from aṅga 2; the source of the one for the third is not stated.¹⁹ Thus the nēgamavavahārō, but the ujjusua, explained by riju-sūtra ("śruta!"), i. e. the orthodox believer, recognizes only the first two vatt., and of these two the first alone as entitled to authoritativeness.

The atthāhigāra section consists¹⁹ merely of the gāthā: sāvajjaḷḷoga°, which states the contents (attha) of each of the 6 ajjhayaṇas of the āvassaya. See p. 24.

Under the head of samōyārē, samavatāra we find for the third time an enumeration of periods of time from āvaliyā to savvaddhā. See pp. 29, 34. In the second dāra, nikkhēva,²⁰ the author returns to the sāmāiam and describes in several verses the nature of the samaṇa [38] who possesses the sāmāiam.²¹ Two of these verses recur in the sāmāiyajjhay. of the Āvaśy. nijj. 8, 106, 110. See pp. 67, 68. The last section of the nikkhēva, the suttālavayanipphanā, is not given in full²² by the author "for brevity's sake," lāghavattham, since its contents is, he says, contained in the third dāra, the aṇugama, which follows thereupon.

This deals particularly with the suttāṇugama and the nijjutti-aṇu., which latter is divided into nikkhēvanijj°, uvagghāyanijj° and suttaphāsianijj° (sūtrasparśika°) — see p. 364. Of the gāthās cited in it one in part recurs²³ in Āvaśy. nijj. 9, 64.

Under the head of suttaphāsia° the correct pronunciation of the suttas is treated of. According to the scholiast there are 32 dōsas and 8 (or 6) guṇas, which he discusses at length.²⁴ The six different means²⁵ of making oneself certain of the correct understanding of the text are also mentioned; they are: — saṃhitā-form of the text, pada-form, sense of the words, division of the words into component parts, consideration (of objections) and determination (rejection of the objections): saṃhiyā ya payaṃ chēva payatthō payaviggahō | chālanā ya pasiddhī ya chhavvihaṃ viddhi lakkhapaṇi.

[39] The fourth dāra, nāē, consists of 6 gāthas, of which the first four treat of the seven different forms of naya, i. e. method of conception, exegesis; they are: — nēgamē, saṃgahē,

¹⁹ The latter passage reads: āgāraṃ āvasaṃtā vā āraṇṇā vā pavvayā idam darisaṇam āvaṇṇā savvadukkhā vimuchohamti 'tyādi; on this the scholiast says: grihasthāh, āraṇṇā vā tāsasādayah, pravrajitās cha Sākyādayah idam asmadīyaṃ matam āvaṇṇā āsītāh sarvadukkhēbhyō vimuchyaṃtā ity ēvaṃ yadā Sāṃkhyādayaḥ prati-pādayanti tad ēvaṃ parasaṃmayavaktavyatā, yadā tu Jainās tadā svasamayavaktavyatā, tatasā chā 'sau syasamaya-parasaṃmayavaktavyatō 'chayatē.

²⁰ It reads: sē kiṃ taṃ atth° rē? jō jassa ajjhayaṇassa atth° rō. In R, instead of taṃ we have sāmāiyassa, atth°rō, and this is doubtless merely an example of how the verse is to be understood: sāvajjaḷḷogaviraḥ sātth°, ukkittāṇā chāvrisatthasassa atth° etc.; i. e. according to the scholiast, "arṭhādāhikārō 'dhyayanaṃ' ādipadād ārabhya sarvapadeshv anuyartatē.

²¹ Is threefold: ōhanipphanā nāmanī° suttālavayani°; ōhani° is fourfold: ajjhayaṇaṃ, ajjhāṇē (akshāṇa), āē (āyāh), jhavaṇā (kshapaṇā), names which are also: sāmāyikachaturvīṃsatistayādiśrutaviśeṣhāṇāṃ sāmānyāṇi.

²² See Bhagav. 2, 186.

²³ He has probably lost his breath! The following sections are treated in a very fragmentary fashion.

²⁴ kiṃ kaṭṭhihaṃ kassa kaṭṭhi kēsu kahaṃ kēchiraṃ (kaṭṭhi) havaḥ kālāṃ | kaḥ saṃtaram āvirahiaṃ bhavā'—garisa-phāsanaṃ niruttā || sāmāiam is to be supplied according to the scholiast. The verse recalls the *quis? quid? cur? contra, simile, paradigmata, testes* applied in German schools to the analysis of proverbs, etc.

²⁵ The scholiast is here very prolix, though the text is very compact and brief.

²⁶ See on this Haribh. on Āvaśy. 10, 1 etc.; in an avachūṭi on the oghaniriyukti we read: askhalitapadoch, ohāraṇaṃ saṃhitā; padavibhāgaḥ padāni; padānaṃ arthaḥ padārthaḥ; padavigrahasu, samāsabhāṇi padāni; chālanā pūrvapakṣhāsaṃkā; pratyavasthānaṃ nipākaraṇēna svapakṣhasthāpanaṃ.

vavahârê, ujjusu¹ saddê, samabhirâḍhê, êvambhûê. The scholiast says that they are named thus in reference to their connection with the sāmāyikādhyayanam as the background of the entire work. Verse 5 gives a general definition of the word naya. Verse 6 makes known the fact that the sâhu, sâdhu, must hear all its forms with their manifold methods of representation, be purified by this means, and thus remain constant in his (correct) course of action. This concluding verse too thus refers directly to the sāmāyikam, even if it does not mention it by name. It was quite necessary that here at the close some regard be had for the sāmāyam; the remaining part of the work refers to it but little.

I have collected on Bhag. 1, 373, fig. some of the data regarding its age that can be extracted from the contents of the Anuyôgadv. To the arguments that have been mentioned others may be added. In the forefront is the direct connection of the work with the grammatical Sanskrit literature, especially the citation of the beginning of Pāṇini's Dhātupāṭha. Next the information of a definite nature concerning the other literatures, Brahminical, etc., of that period. The nine kavvarasas point to a highly developed system of rhetoric, and the gâhās cited therein demonstrate the existence of a rich Prākṛit poetry after the fashion of the verses in Hāla's saptasatakam. The names cited in the formation of taddhitas are perhaps to be regarded as titles of dramas (cf. nāḍagādī at the end of the lōiya works) or [40] of romances. See p. 386. *Bhāratam* (but not *Malābh.*²) and *Rāṇḍyaṇam* are mentioned three times in conjunction and undoubtedly were held in high esteem at that period. See my treatise on the Rām, p. 34. The contrast instituted between kālīam suam and diṭṭhivāa is of importance to Jaina literature. At the date of this work and at that of the Nandī, see above, p. 11, there existed a work, consisting of six ajjhayanās, on the six āvaśyakas, the first of which is said to form the foundation of the Anuy., though no evidence can be drawn from the Anuy. itself to prove this assertion. Another fact that savours of antiquity is the special emphasis laid on the formation of the names of persons by means of the names of the nakshatras or of their divinities.²⁶ The first nakshatra names appear in the old kṛittikā series, though no longer in their ancient form; and the names of the divinities are very much corrupted. The significance of the names Chīṇī, Sōratṭha and Marahattha, and those of the different pāsaṇḍas, or of each of the divinities honoured by them, must not be overlooked.

There is a commentary by Hēmachandrasūri, scholar of Abhayadōvasūri.²⁷

[41] The conclusion is formed by

G. — The four mūlasūtras.

I have as yet not been able to make out the significance of this title,²⁸ which has come to light only in quite modern times in connection with these texts. In the second mūlasūtra the expression mūlasūtragāthā (see p. 54) occurs (see scholiast on Āvaśy. nijj. 11, 61) though it is there probably used in contrast to the gāthās of the nijjutti; so that mūlasūtra would mean nothing more than sūtra (see *ibid.* on 11, 39), i. e. the original to which the nijjutti belongs.

The three texts bearing the name mūlasūtra which I have before me (the fourth I do not possess) have in reality no sūtra form at all, but are almost entirely in metre; mūlas. 1 and 3 in the ancient style (see p. 238, 239), especially in ślōkas; the nijj. on 2 is in gāthās.

They make the impression of being analogous to parīśiṣhtas rather than sūtras. The mūlas., which is No. 2 in Bühler's list, has not been preserved in its sūtra form at all, only its

²⁶ As a matter of fact such names are not often found in the Siddhānta. The following examples, however, belong here: — Āsāḍha, Aggidatta, Sōmadatta, Pūsamitta, Tisagutta, Tisabhadda; cf. also Rēvaī-nakkhatta (above p. 7). It is surprising that the form in "bhūti is omitted, a form which is specially attested as occurring in Mahāvīra's time. Cf. also Pussabhū, Siva°. See Mahābh. on Pāṇ. 8, 2, 107 (Ind. Stud. 4, 381) on the common name of Agnibhūti.

²⁷ Other predecessors are Munisūndarasūri, Vīradēva and Jayasinhāsūri; the gacha is śrī Harshapurīya, the kulam that of śrī Praśnavāhana. The well-known Hēmachandra is, therefore, not referred to, and the above-mentioned Abhayadēva is doubtless not the navāṅgīrīttikrit. Cf. pp. 276—7.

²⁸ Does it perhaps refer to the 5 mūlaguṇas (Āvaśy. 20, 6—8).

nijjutti being extant. The title of the fourth mûlas. expressly declares it to be a nijj.; and since both the others have essentially the same form, it is not an improbable conjecture to regard these too as nijjuttis to a sûttram of like name. On the other hand, however, special nijjuttis on each are cited by the scholiast, and these nijj. appear to be still extant. Of this kind are probably the two texts which the author of the *Âvaśy*. [42] nijj. 2, s declares that he composed on *dasakālia* and *uttarajjh*°.

The prose portions found here have in places the old introductory formula: *suyam mē āusam* . . ; and the concluding formula of each of the *ajjh*. (and *uddes*.) of mûlas. 1 and 3: *tibemi* gives us an impression of their antiquity. Furthermore, the titles of all the 36 chapters of the first mûlas. are enumerated in the fourth *aṅga*, § 36 — hence this mûlas. with essentially the same contents must have existed at the date of *aṅga* 4. It appears to be cited also in the *Kalpasūtra*. In N. (above p 11 fg.) we find only the three titles of the mûlasūtras I have before me; the name of the fourth is omitted, and the title of the second plays there, as in the *Annyōgadv*. (above pp. 11, 22 fg.), a very prominent part.

A very ancient author is quoted for the third mûlasūtram; and a single chapter (14) of the *Âv. nijj.* is ascribed to a definite author, although the author of the *Âv. nijj.* himself says, in the beginning of chap. 2, that he is author of a large number of nijjuttis on the most different parts of the *Siddhānta*, especially on several *chēdasūtras*, and, as already mentioned, on mûlas. 1 and 3. The *Âvaśy. nijj.* contains, therefore, a large amount of authoritative data in reference to the date of its composition.

The contents of all three texts belongs to the sphere of the *vinayapitaka*. The *Nom. Sgl. Masc.* of the 1 Decl. ends generally in *o*, but chiefly in *e* in the few prose sections; but both forms are found together occasionally, and in fact even in the same verse.

[43] The extent of mûlas. 1 is stated to be 2095 gr., that of 2 or its *nijj.* 2550, that of 3, 700 gr. The author of the commentary on 2 is said to have died *Vīra* 1055.

XLIII. First mûlasūtram, the *uttarajjhayanam*, in 36 *ajjhayanās*. The names of these *ajjh.*, which are cited (see page 280) in *aṅga* 4, § 36, are identical with those in the MSS. with but a few exceptions. By the *chhatāsaṁ cha apuṭṭharāyaṇaṁ*, mentioned in the *Kalpas. Jinach.* § 147, we must understand the *Uttarajjh.* according to the scholiast (*Kalpalatā*). See *Jacobi*, p. 114. The correctness of this number (36) is corroborated by the concluding verse of the work itself. *Haribhadra*, on *Âvaśy.* 8, 54, explains the *isibhāsāṁ* mentioned there by *uttarajjhayanādini*;²⁹ and *ibid.* 2, 5 both *isibhās*° and *uttarajjh*° appear in conjunction in the text. The scholiast on *Nandī* explains (see p. 13 n.) the name *uttar*° by the *sarvēśhām adhyayanānām pradhānatvaṁ* which belongs to this work. The author of the *Âvaśyakaniijj.* states (2, 5) that he is also author of a *nijj.* on the *Uttarajjh*.

With the exception of chap. 29 and the beginning of 2 and 16 which three chapters commence with the formula: — *suyam mē āusam tēṇam bhagavayā ēvam akkhāyaṁ* (or *t. bh. Mahāvīrēṇam Kāsavēṇam e. a.*), the text is composed in metre and principally *ślōkas*, though there is an admixture of *gāthās*, *trishūbh*, etc.³⁰ The contents consist of direct ordinances in reference to a correct course of life, especially of the clergy, [44] and of recitals and parables illustrative of this life. Much of the contents makes upon us the impression of great antiquity and recalls similar Buddhistic texts and especially *aṅga* 2.

On this mûlas. we have a very detailed commentary, *śiṣyahitā*, by *Sāntisūri* (*Sāntyāchārya*) in which frequent reference is paid to a *nijjutti* belonging to the text.³¹ See pp. 41, 43.

²⁹ So also the *anyā* in the *Vidhiprapā*; see pp. 429, 430.

³⁰ The metre is often very much out of order, as in almost all metrical parts of the *Siddhānta*.

³¹ In a palm-leaf MS., dating itself 1307 (A. D. 1251) the 3 appears to me to be for an original 5; in which case the date would be 1507 (A. D. 1451). According to *Jacobi*, p. 9, the commentary of *Dēvēndraganī*, which was composed *Sāmv.* 1179 (A. D. 1123), is based upon that of *Sāntisūri*.

1. *vinayasuyajjhayaṇaṃ*, 48 vv. begins: *saṃjōgavippamukkassa aṇagāraṣṣa bhikkhuṇḍo | vinayaṃ pāukkarissāmi | vāṇupuvvīṃ suṇēha mē ||* The word *buddha* appears to be here and frequently elsewhere in the work, an honorific title of the teacher's (vv. 7, 8); cf. p. 202 (aṅga 2).

2. *parisahaḥjḥ*, 46 vv. with a prose beginning, which enumerates how the 22 *parisahas*: *samaṇēṇaṃ bhagavayā Mahāvīrēṇaṃ Kāsavēṇaṃ pavēiya*. In the metrical portion the first person is used: *parisahaṇaṃ pavibhatti | Kāsavēṇaṃ pavēiya | taṃ bhē udāharissāmi | āṇupuvvīṃ suṇēhamē || 1 ||*

3. *chaurāṅgaṃ*, °giyyaṃ in S,³² *chāu(rāṇ)gijjaṃ* V, 20 vv.; of the *mānushatvādi*. In the commentary on v. 9 we find particular statements in reference to the seven schisms.

4. *asaṃkhayaṃ*, *asaṃskṛitaṃ*, *pamāyappamāyaṃ* vā V, 13 vv. Of *pramādāpramāda* (cf. No. 10 in the *anaṅgapavittḥa* list of N., above p. 11), and of the *apramāda*, *marāṇakāle* 'pi.

[45] 5. *akāmamarāṇijjaṃ*, 19 vv.; of the *paṇḍitamaraṇaṃ*.

6. *khuddāga-niyaṃthijjaṃ* (cf. chap. 20), *purisaviyyaṃ* S, 18 vv. Of the *vidyācharaṇavi-kalpās* of the *virata*. Its appellation in S is very different though the name there suits the present contents very well.

7. *ēlaijjaṃ* (so also V; of *ēḍaka*); *ura(b)bbiyaṃ* S and *urabbhi* also here in C, in an enumeration of the chapters which is added to the close of this MS. only: 30 vv.; *urabhrādi-dṛiṣṭāntaḥ*, resp. *rasagṛiddhityāgaḥ*.

8. *Kāvilyaṃ*, °lijaṃ S V.; 20 vv. Of the *nirlobhatvaṃ*. It closes: *ii ēsa dhammō akkhāē | Kavilēṇaṃ visuddhapannēṇaṃ | . . tti bēmi || 20 ||*

9. *Namipavvijjā*, 62 vv. Of the *charaṇaṃ prati niḥkaṃpatvaṃ*; *puttaṃ thavijja* *rajjē abhinikkhamai* *Namī rāyā*.

10. *dumapattayaṃ*, *drumapattrakaṃ*, 37 vv.; *apramādārtham upamādvārēṇā 'nuśāsaṇaṃ*. Instruction addressed to *Gōyama*. It closes thus: — *buddhassa nisamma bhāsiyaṃ | sukaḥiaṃ atthapahōpasōhiyaṃ | rāgāṃ dōsaṃ cha chhīṇḍiyā | siddhigayaṃ gāē Gōama tti bēmi || 37 ||*

11. *bahussuyapujjaṃ* (°puvvaṃ V), *bahuśrutapūjā*, 32 vv. — In v. 1 the refrain of 1, 1, 2, 1: *pāukkarissāmi, āṇupuvvīṃ suṇēha mē*.

12. *Harikēsijjaṃ* (*Hariēsi*° V), 47 vv. Of the *tapahsamṛiddhi* of *Hariēsabala*. The stories belonging here and also to the following chapters are related in detail in the commentary.

13. *Chittasambhūijjaṃ*, *Chitrasambhūtiyaṃ*, 35 vv.; *nidānaṃ tyājyaṃ nidānadosaḥ | Kampillasambhūō Chittō*.

14. *Usūrijaṃ*, *Ishukāriyaṃ*, 55 vv.; of the *nirnidānatāgūṇa*; *purē purāṇē Isugāra nāmē* (i. e. not as Ind. St. 2, 248).

[46] 15. *sabhikkhu*, °ugaṃ S, 16 vv. Of the *bhikshugūṇās*. Each verse closes with the refrain: *sabhikkhū*, cf. *Dasavēālia* 3, 10. Begins: *mōṇaṃ charissāmi samichcha dhammaṃ*.

16. *bambhachērasamāhiṭṭhāṇaṃ*, *bambhagutti* C, *samāhiṭṭhāṇaṃ* S. First an enumeration of the ten *bambhachēras* of the *bhikkhu* in prose, then 17 *silōgas*. Of the *brahmahacharyagupti*.

17. *pāvasamanijjaṃ*, *pāpaśramaṇiyaṃ*, 21vv. Of the *pāpaśramaṇasvarūpaṃ*, and of the *pāpavarjanaṃ*. Verses 3 to 19 close with the refrain: *pāvasamaṇi tti vuchchāi*

18. *Samjājjaṃ*, *Samjayiyaṃ*,³³ 54 vv. Of the *bhōgarddhityāga*. *Kaṃpillē nayarē rāyā | udinnabalavāhaṇē | nāmēṇaṃ Samjāō nāma | migavvaṃ (mṛigavyāṃ) uvaṇigjāē ||*

19. *Miyāputtīyaṃ*, *Ma°ijjaṃ* V, *Miyacharitta* (or *Miyāchāritā*) S, 97 vv. Of the *niḥprati-karmatā*, and of *Miyāputta*, son of king *Balabhadra* and of *Miyā*; *Suggivē nayarē*.

³² S = *Samavāya* (aṅga 4); V = *Vidhiprapā*, where the names are enumerated in detail.

³³ This might be *per se* for *samyatīyaṃ*; since the *pāpavarjanaṃ* is: *samyatasyai 'va, sa cha bhōgārdhityāgata-ēva . .*

FOLKLORE IN SALSETTE.

BY GEO. FR. D'PENHA.

No. 13. — The Cowherd and His Wife.¹

There once lived a man with his wife and three sons, and when the sons came to be of a suitable age, the parents got them married. The wives of the two elder sons, having also attained puberty, came and lived with their husbands, but the wife of the third son, who was himself very young, being still too small, of course remained at her father's house.

Several years passed and the father died. The two elder brothers took to their father's profession, cultivation, and the youngest, not being old enough to do any manual work, was told by his brothers to take the cattle out for grazing and such-like light work.

Now it happened that his wife, being now twelve years old, had attained puberty, and was in the habit of going to a well to draw water, where she used to see a shepherd, and, calling out to him, would sing:—

“*Āikā na ré, āik na ré māñjiā māñdēvālā dādā ré,
Aurā māñzā, aurā ré nīrap sāñg māñjē jāsvantā² bhartārā ré:—
'Tījī na ré rambhā³ na zhāli kēlā saśī ré,
Kēl saśī na nimanā rasā dīlī ré.
Bagitēī ré, bagitēī pāñch dissā tājī na ré, vāṭṭū ré,⁴
Nāhīn tē na lāvīlū dūsriāññ na pāṭṭū ré.' ”*

Listen, O listen, brother shepherd,

These words of mine; this message tell to my beloved husband:—

‘Your wife has grown up like a plantain-tree,

Like a plantain-tree, and like a lime she is full of juice.

She will wait, she will wait for you for five days,

Otherwise she will marry another.’

For three or four days she said the same thing to the shepherd, and the shepherd used to deliver her message to her husband, whom he happened to meet on the pasture ground. Three days had passed, and on the fourth the cowherd asked his mother to let him go and fetch his wife. It happened also that his two elder brothers had gone to another country to trade. So his mother said to him:—“Wait, my son, till your brothers come back, and then you can go with them and fetch your wife home.”

The cowherd, however, would not listen to his mother's advice, for who could tell when his brothers would return, and he knew that if he did not go soon, in one day more his wife would take to herself another husband. So on the fifth day, instead of rising and taking his cattle to graze as usual, he would not leave his bed. His mother saw him still asleep; so she sang:—

“*Ūṭṭā na ré, ūṭ māñjiā jāsvantā gōuñwāliā ré,
Tājī na ré dhōraññ na gūraññ gōṭṭiāññ gōṭṭū bāñdāliāññ ré.’ ”*
Rise, O rise, my beloved cowherd,
Your cattle are still tied up in every stall.

Then the cowherd, who was awake, thus sang to his mother:—

“*Sōrdvīññ gé, sōrā āiē, āñi lāvīññ vanātī gé.’ ”*

Unfasten, O unfasten, and let them loose in the forest.

¹ [This quaint version of the “Taming of the Shrew” belongs to the “singing” class of tales very common in the Panjāb, and there always associated, so far as I know, with the Rasālū Cycle. This tale then is very important as evidence of what I have long suspected, that the incidents of the Rasālū Cycle are common to all Northern India. Thus we now know that a “singing” tale of a type identical with those of that Cycle is current among the Salsette Christians without ascription to any particular hero. — ED.]

² *Rambhā* is one that is an adept in singing.

³ *lit.*, victorious.

⁴ *lit.*, I will see, will see for five days your road.

His mother unfastened the cattle from the stalls and drove them towards the forest, but she and his sisters-in-law wondered what was the matter with him. They asked each other if any one of them had said or done anything to annoy him, but all pleaded ignorance. And his mother, thinking perhaps he was sick, called out her eldest daughter-in-law, and sang:—

*“ Áiká na gé, áiká na máijé mhôtté ná síné gé,
Lává na gé, lává na síné gavétáná chávía gé;
Kárávía gé, kárá na síné vakhanáchia záná gé,
Paratávía gé, paratá síné dhôñdié sândié gé,
Pázávía gé, pásá na síné tújé jásvantá dírá gé.”*

Listen, O listen, my eldest daughter-in-law,
Put, O put, daughter-in-law, keys to the drawers;
Take out, O take out, daughter-in-law, ingredients for medicine,
Grind, O grind them, daughter-in-law, on the stone mortar,
Give to drink, O give to drink, daughter-in-law, to your beloved brother-in-law.

When the cowherd heard what his mother had said to his sister-in-law, he sang in answer:—

“ Dúkatéi gé, dúkatéi áié túmché mhôtté na sínéchan pôttú gé.”

Is aching, is aching, mother, your eldest daughter-in-law's stomach?

By this he meant, of course, to tell his mother that he had no need of the medicine, which she had told her daughter-in-law to give him, but that his sister-in-law herself wanted it. His mother, however, did not understand the drift of what he said, and thinking perhaps that he did not like to take the medicine out of his eldest sister-in-law's hand, she called out to her second daughter-in-law, and thus sang to her:—

*“ Áiká na gé, áiká na máijé madalé⁵ na síné gé,
Lává na gé, lává na síné gavétáná chávía gé;
Kárávía gé, kárá na síné vakhanáchia záná gé,
Paratávía gé, paratá síné dhôñdié sândié gé,
Pázávía gé, pásá na síné tújé jásvantá dírá gé.”*

Listen, O listen, my second daughter-in-law,
Put, O put, daughter-in-law, keys to the drawers;
Take out, O take out, daughter-in-law, ingredients for medicine,
Grind, O grind them, daughter-in-law, on the stone mortar,
Give to drink, O give to drink, daughter-in-law, to your beloved brother-in-law.

When his mother had done singing to her second daughter-in-law to give the boy medicine—the cowherd, still in bed, thus sang to his mother:—

“ Dúkatéi gé, dúkatéi áié túmché madalé sínéchan pôttú gé.”

Is aching, is aching, mother, your second daughter-in-law's stomach?

His mother now thought that he would not take any medicine even from his second sister-in-law, and so she said nothing. A little while afterwards the cowherd arose, and dressing himself very shabbily, took a horse from the stable, and took the road to his wife's house; though he had never seen his wife, much less her house. He thought, however, that the shepherd, who used to bring her message to him, would guide him there, and so he went on and on. On his way he came upon his sister's house, when his sister, seeing him dressed so shabbily, asked him what was the matter with him and where he was going. He told her how for two or three days successively he had received a message from his wife, and that he was going to fetch her home.

⁵ Lit., Middle; but second is meant.

"But," said she, "how will you find out your wife's house? And how will you know her? You have never seen her before!"

"I will go," he answered, "and wait for the shepherd, who will surely guide me."

His sister then said to him :—"Don't do so. Take these few stones with you. When your wife comes to the well and sings to the shepherd, you will know her; and when she has filled her pitcher and is about to lift it up on her head, throw one of these stones at the pitcher, which will be then charmed, so that she will be unable to carry it!"

The cowherd took the stones, and riding his horse went away. As he went along he came upon the well and there saw a young woman drawing water, and suspecting that it must be his wife he waited there. Soon afterwards he saw the shepherd driving his sheep to the pasture-ground. When the woman saw the shepherd, she sang :—

"*Āikā na ré, āikā na ré māñjīā mēñdēvālā dādā ré,
Aurā māñsā, aurā ré nīrap sāng māñjē jāsvantā bhartārā ré :—
'Tūji na ré rambhā na shāilī kēlū zaśī ré,
Kēl zaśī na nimanā rasā āilī ré.
Bagitēī ré, bagitēī pāñch dissū tūji na ré vāññā ré,
Nāhin tē na lāvilū dūśriashī na pūññā ré.'*"

Listen, O listen, brother shepherd,
These words of mine; this message tell to my beloved husband :—
'Your wife has grown up like a plantain-tree,
Like a plantain-tree, and like a lime she is full of juice.
She will wait, she will wait for you for five days,
Otherwise she will marry another.'

The shepherd listened to her, and promising to deliver her message, went away again, as he had not seen the cowherd. The cowherd now made sure that the young woman was his wife, and waited till she had filled her pitcher, and when she was about to carry it, he hit it with one of the stones given him by his sister. As soon as the stone struck the pitcher, his wife was unable to lift it up. She tried all her strength, but to no avail; the pitcher was as if fixed in the ground. She looked about to see if there was any one about the place, whom she might call to help her, and saw the cowherd on horse-back, and as she, too, had not seen him before, she did not recognise him as her husband. She therefore thus sang to him :—

"*Ēhī na ré, ēhī na ré māñjīā ghōrēvālā dādā ré."*

Come, O come, my brother groom.

But the cowherd answered :—

"*Pailā hātū lāvin na gē tūjē shōbalānām gē,
Ani dūsrā hātū lāvin na gē ghāgarilā gē."*

One hand I will place upon your breasts,
And with the other I will lift up the pitcher.

Upon this the wife sang to herself, addressing her mother :—

"*Saddāñcham khānam na āiē, saddāñcham na pinam gē,
Saddāñchī ghāgar na āiē, saddāñchī na chūmbalā gē,
Āsū māñsam sōrū kōñin khālam ge ?*"⁶

My usual food, mother, and my usual drink,
My usual pitcher, mother, and my usual pad,
Where is my strength gone to-day?

⁶ *Lit.*, who has eaten my strength to-day?

She made another attempt to lift up the pitcher, but in vain ; so she again beckoned to the supposed groom to come and help her, singing : —

“ *Ēhī na ré, ēh na ré māñjā ghōrévdlā dādā ré.*”

Come, O come, my brother groom.

But the cowherd sang as before : —

“ *Paṛlā hātū lāvin na gē tūjē shōbalānām gē,
Ani dāsrā hātū lāvin na gē ghāgarilā gē.*”

One hand I will place upon your breasts,
And with the other I will lift up the pitcher.

The poor woman had now no alternative, but to allow him to place one hand on her breasts. So he came, and having first placed one hand on her breasts, he only touched the pitcher with the other, and she was enabled to carry it as she would a feather. Taking up her pitcher she went to her house, our hero following her. His wife, however, did not like this ; so she shut the door against him. And then he sang : —

“ *Ūgarā gē, ūgar rambhā darbājāchā khilā gē.
Ālīlā na, ālīlā tūzā jāsvantū bhartārū gē.*”

Open, O open, wife, the bolts of the door.
Is come, is come, your beloved husband.

But the wife thinking he was only a groom, who had followed her with evil intentions, paid no heed to what he said, and hurled at him abuse in the following strain : —

“ *Māñjē na ré jāsvantā gōuñwāliachā kūtārā nāhin sāsaśil.*”

You are not worthy of being my beloved cowherd's dog.

But our hero paid no attention to the abuse, and repeated his entreaties to his wife : —

“ *Ūgarā gē, ūgar rambhā darbājāchā khilā gē.
Ālīlā na, ālīlā tūzā jāsvantū bhartārū gē.*”

Open, O open, wife, the bolts of the door.
Is come, is come, your beloved husband.

The girl, however, would not open the door, and continued to abuse him, singing : —

“ *Māñjē na ré jāsvantā gōuñwāliachā dūkar nāhin sāsaśil.*”

You are not worthy of being my beloved cowherd's pig.

Still the cowherd did not mind his wife's abuse, but sang : —

“ *Ūgarā gē, ūgar rambhā darbājāchā khilā gē.
Ālīlā na, ālīlā tūzā jāsvantū bhartārū gē.*”

Open, O open, wife, the bolts of the door.
Is come, is come, your beloved husband.

But still the girl could not be persuaded to believe that the youth was really her husband, and therefore sang : —

“ *Māñjē na ré jāsvantā gōuñwāliachā māñsar nāhin sāsaśil.*”

You are not worthy of being my beloved cowherd's cat.

For the third time the cowherd bore the abuse patiently, and for the third time he entreated her to open the door for him, singing : —

“ *Ūgarā gē, ūgar rambhā darbājāchā khilā gē.
Ālīlā na, ālīlā tūzā jāsvantū bhartārū gē.*”

Open, O open, wife, the bolts of the door.
Is come, is come your beloved husband.

Thus they kept on for some time, one begging for the opening of the door, and the other abusing him instead, till the girl's parents, who had gone out, came in and recognising their son-in-law, took him into the house, introducing him to their daughter as her husband, and entertaining him as a son-in-law.

The day passed and in the evening, as there was no spare sleeping-room for them, the wife asked her sister-in-law to spare her room for them for the night, singing : —

"Diavá na gé, diavá kúniad túmchá kámbará gé.

Diavá na gé kúniad túmchá kámbará gé."

Give, O give, sister-in-law, your room.

Give, O sister-in-law, your room.

Her sister-in-law willingly gave up her room to them for the night, and having taken their supper they went to bed. On the following morning, while she was still in bed, the cowherd's wife sang to her mother : —

"Náhin na gé, náhin áié kómala máthianchan na mógarani gé !

Náhin na gé, náhin áié púsala dólíanchá kúsólá gé !

Náhin na gé, náhin áié vánkharli máthiachi na vinné gé !"

Not faded, not faded, mother, the jessamine from my hair !

Nor rubbed off, nor rubbed off, mother, the lamp-black from my eyes !

Nor dishevelled, nor dishevelled, mother, my hair !

To which her mother sang in reply : —

"Tó té na gé, tó té dhúé áilái lúngalá bhágala gé.

Tó té hái dhúé lájéché na cómbará ge."

He has come, he has come, daughter, knocked up and tired.

He is, daughter, a shy cock.

They then arose and another day passed, and in the evening, the cowherd's wife asked her aunt to spare her room for them for the night. She sang : —

"Diavá na gé, diavá kúki túmchá kámbará gé.

Diavá na gé kúki túmchá kámbará gé."

Give, O give, aunt, your room.

Give, O aunt, your room.

Her aunt also gave up her room with the greatest pleasure, and when the night had come they took their supper and went to bed. Next morning, when she awoke, the cowherd's wife sang to her mother : —

"Náhin na gé, náhin áié kómala máthianchan na mógarani gé !

Náhin na gé, náhin áié púsala dólíanchá kúsólá gé !

Náhin na gé, náhin áié vánkharli máthiachi na vinné gé !"

Not faded, not faded, mother, the jessamine from my hair !

Nor rubbed off, nor rubbed off, mother, the lamp-black from my eyes !

Nor dishevelled, nor dishevelled, mother, my hair !

And her mother again sang to her : —

"Tó té na gé, tó té dhúé áilái lúngalá bhágala gé.

Tó té hái dhúé lájéché na cómbará gé."

He has come, he has come, daughter, knocked up and tired.

He is, daughter, a shy cock.

When they awoke the following morning, the cowherd told his father- and mother-in-law that he wished to go home, and to take his wife with him. They had, of course, no objection,

and the mother made her daughter dress for the journey. While she was combing the girl's hair and putting on her a new rich *sári* and other things, her daughter sang : —

"*Kalá na gé, kalá dié sária ani gharía gé ?*

Tô té hái na váttechá vátari gé."

Why, why, mother, these *sáris* and other clothes ?

He is only a passer-by !

But her mother, who knew better, paid no heed to her daughter's words, and when she was ready, she ordered a palanquin for her ; but the girl would not sit in it, and had therefore to follow her husband on foot. Half way she complained that she was tired, upon which her husband taunted her : —

"*Náhin na gé, náhin dié kómalañ máthianchanñ na mógarañ gé !*

Náhin na gé, náhin dié púsala dólíanchá kásólá gé !

Náhin na gé, náhin dié vánkharli máthiachi na vñá gé !"

Not faded, not faded, mother, the jessamine from my hair !

Nor rubbed off, nor rubbed off, mother, the lamp-black from my eyes !

Nor dishevelled, nor dishevelled, mother, my hair !

And again with the words : —

"*Kalá na gé, kalá dié sária ani gharía gé ?*

Tô té hái na váttechá vátari gé."

Why, why, mother, these *sáris* and other clothes ?

He is only a passer-by !

When she was thus taunted she followed him quietly till they reached his sister's house. There he told her to get a large vessel with seven holes, and ordered her to fill it up with water. But how could such a vessel be filled ? As fast as she poured water in it, it ran out through the holes ! But she was made to bring water, till she was brought to submission and admitted him as her husband.

They then went to their house, and lived happily together to a good old age.

MISCELLANEA.

NOTES ON THE NATIONAL CUSTOMS OF THE KARENNIS.

The Karennis, or the Red Karens, call themselves Kayá. Their classical appellation is Kiráta. They inhabit the tract of country, lying between the parallels of 18° to 20° North latitude and 97° to 99° East longitude, with an area of about 7,200 square miles. They are a strong and hardy race, fierce and desperate fighters, and take a special delight in raiding into the neighbouring territories, kidnapping men, women, and children, and driving off cattle.

A raid, made on a village is either through the existence of some *chwé*, or on account of the favourable omens shown by a fowl's bones at the installation of a Chief.

The word *chwé* means an affair awaiting settlement, and is, in fact, a *casus belli*. The nearest English word, which would express its meaning, is 'feud.' Its literal meaning in

Burmese is 'debt.' Among the Karennis any wrong done against their persons, or property, or any insult done to their tutelary *náts* is a *chwé*, and it must be expiated either by blood or presents. A *chwé* is not wiped off by the death of the original offender ; his children and his children's children are held responsible for his wrongful acts. It is the persistence of this custom of 'feud' that causes the Kachins, Karennis, Chins, and other wild tribes of Burma to have no union among themselves, in spite of their community of language, beliefs, and traditions, and splits them up into various clans at feud with one another.

A Chief among the Karennis attains his position not by hereditary right, but on account of certain sacred characteristics. He must abstain from rice and liquor. His mother, while *enceinte*, must have eschewed these things and lived solely on yams and potatoes. She must not have eaten any meat, nor drunk the water out of the common wells ; and in order to be duly

qualified for a Chiefship her son must continue these habits. Such a child is taken good care of, and in due time installed as a Chief in the following manner. A *hò*,¹—a low, rambling rectangular bamboo structure—is built and the candidate for the Chiefship is placed in it. Each villager brings one bunch of plantains, one mat, and at least a quarter of a tical weight of silver as offerings. The amount of the silver offering, however, varies from a quarter of a tical to a full tical, according to the resources of the village. The villagers also bring fowls, whose bones are to be used in reading omens. They then proceed to pass a merry time the whole night long, drinking *kaung*, their national beverage, and dancing round the *hò*. The fowls are killed and the leg bones are carefully scraped clean, and certain small holes in them are examined with a piece of straw or bamboo. If the holes on the right leg-bone are situated higher up than the corresponding ones on the left, the omen is considered to be auspicious. By this method of divination, which is quite a science among the Red Karens, the future of the candidate for a Chiefship is settled. The questions usually solved are whether the newly installed Chief will be one of might and power, whether the villages will prosper under his rule, and whether the people now assembled will be able to undertake forays successfully and with a minimum of loss to their side.

Every man is judge in his own case in Karenni, and the exaction of an indemnity in consequence of a *chwé*, which is an affair of honour, rests with himself. It is only in im-

portant differences and disputes that the Chief exercises his prerogative by stepping in as an arbitrator or peacemaker.

Divination by means of the bones of a fowl plays an important part in Karenni politics. All organized raids are determined in this way, and sometimes the subjects of a Chief disobey his orders, when the bones consulted predict unfavourable events.

The Karennis pay no regular revenue to their Chiefs. All that they are called on to pay is a silver offering, as described above, on certain days, as the anniversary day of the Chief's installation, or some festival day. Such silver pieces are hoarded in the hollow of the central post in the *hò*.

The Karennis, like all other wild tribes, are noted for their fidelity to their oaths. There are different forms of oath-taking:—(1) killing buffaloes, eating their flesh, and preserving their horns, one being kept as a memento by each party participating in the ceremony;² (2) drinking water, in which a drop of human blood from a puncture in the arm has been infused; (3) eating a jack-fruit; and (4) exchanging spears. The first three forms are used when an interchange of fraternity takes place. The fourth signifies that a reciprocal guarantee is given that no harm shall be done to the recipients. Sometimes, after deciding a knotty case between parties, who have a *chwé* against each other, a Karenni Chief gives his spear to one of the litigants in order to shield him from private vengeance.

T. S. K.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

MISCELLANEOUS SUPERSTITIONS AS TO ANIMALS IN MADRAS.

If one happens to see a jackal on first rising from bed, there will be success in every enterprise undertaken during that day. It is a common custom among the Hindus of Madras, when a man meets with exceptional success, to ask him, "Did you see the jackal's face early this morning?"

If a horse neighs, or an ass brays, or a clock chimes, or a bell is rung, or a dog twitches his ears, or a gun is fired, just when one is contemplating the performance of anything, there will certainly be success in the enterprise or attainment of the object.

K SRIKANTALIYAR.

Ootacamund.

BOOK-NOTICES.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA, THE MONUMENTAL ANTIQUITIES AND INSCRIPTIONS IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH, described and arranged by A. FÜHRER, Ph.D., Archæological Survey, N.-W. P. and Oudh. Allahabad—Printed and Published by the Supdt., Govt. Press, N.-W. P. and Oudh; Calcutta.—Thacker, Spink & Co.; London.—Trübner & Co. and W. H. Allen & Co.;

Leipzig.—Otto Harrassowitz. Imperial Quarto. 1891.

The new series of Archæological Survey Reports well begun by Messrs. Führer and E. Smith's handsome volume on the Sharqi Architecture of Jaunpur is worthily continued by the work which is the subject of this notice.

¹ [*ò* = *aw*, in 'awful'—Ed.]

² Such a ceremony was performed by Kyetpôgyi

(Chetpôji), Chief of Western Karenni, and Mr. O'Riley, Deputy Commissioner, Toungoo, in 1887.

The book is printed in large quarto size on good paper, and the binding and typography are much superior to the work ordinarily turned out by official presses in India.

Some misprints and slips of the pen have escaped correction; for example, the name of the well-known Bhar tribe is perversely printed Bhâr, with the long vowel, throughout the book. I am familiar with the Bhar country, and am quite certain that the vowel is invariably short. In the spelling of Indian words Dr. Führer has allowed himself to fall into the sin of pedantry:—'jungle' is now as good English as 'verandah,' or 'mango,' and it is absurd to print the word as 'jāngal.'

I do not understand on what principle the word Saiyid or Sayyid (سید), is spelt Sa'id, a form which is incorrect, both for transliteration and pronunciation.¹

So much for small slips and defects. They do not seriously impair the value of the book, and need not be further dwelt on. While commenting on the external features of Dr. Führer's book, I must not forget to mention that it is furnished with admirable indices. Careful readers should not overlook the important "Addenda et Corrigenda" at pp 331—334

The Classified Lists of the Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh contained in this volume have been prepared in compliance with orders issued by the Government of India in 1885. The system of classification adopted is designed as a guide to assist Government in deciding questions concerning the conservation and repair of ancient monuments. "The object of this volume," observes the compiler, "is not only to produce complete lists, so far as known, of the antiquities and epigraphs in each district for the use of the Archaeological Survey, but to furnish general information for the guidance of the many residents in these Provinces, with the view of enabling them, if their tastes so incline, to interest themselves in the character and history of the remains in their vicinity."

The work may be regarded as an abstract of Sir A. Cunningham's *Reports*, topographically arranged, and brought up to date.

I now proceed to notice some passages of special interest.

Page 8.—The local name of the rock at Kâlsi in the Dehra Dûn District is *Chitrâtilâ*, "inscribed or pictured stone," and not *Chhat-*

trâtilâ, or "canopied stone," as stated by Sir A. Cunningham.²

Page 23.—An old fort, in Tahsil Sahaswân, 20 miles north-west from Badâon, has the remarkable name of Kôṭ Sâlbâhan (Sâlivâhana).

Page 35.—In Pargana Bilâri of the Murâdâbâd District "there is considerable opportunity for antiquarian researches, as nearly every second village has an old mound, or *dih*, to the west of it."

Page 36.—To the south-west of the village of 'Âzampur, in Tahsil Hasanpur of the same district, "is a *khêrâ*, which is the site of ancient buildings. It is reported that there was here the school of Fâizî Fayâzî, brother of Abûl Fazl, the great historian of Akbar's time. The ruins of an arched doorway are still standing. The earth of this mound is carried off by people, who come from long distances, in order to give it to students to eat, as it is supposed to have very beneficial influence on the brain and memory!"

Page 42.—The ruins at Mâtî (Mâtripura) in Tahsil Pawâyan of the Shâhjahânpur District are extensive and apparently would repay examination.

Pages 53—68.—These pages contain a good summary account of the buildings at Agra. Dr. Führer thinks that the Palace of Jahângir in the Fort was probably built by Akbar, late in his reign, to serve as a residence for the heir-apparent and his family. He does not accept Sir A. Cunningham's suggestion that the building was erected by Ibrâhîm Lôdî.

Pages 105—107.—It is to be hoped that a full and connected account of the discoveries at Mathurâ will some day be published. Pending such publication the notes here given are of interest: "The Kankâlî Tilâ lies at the side of the Agra and Delhi road, much nearer the city than the Jamâlpur mound. On the summit stands the fragment of a carved pillar venerated at the present day, the supposed image of the goddess Kankâlî."

In the hill itself were found buried two colossal statues of Buddha, each 7½ feet high. Here also was found the large figure of an elephant standing on the capital of a pillar with an inscription of the Indo-Scythian king Huvishka.

During the extensive excavations, carried on by Dr. Burgess in January 1888, and by Dr.

¹ [It would be quite a different word, and would ordinarily represent سید—ED.]

² [It should be noted that, in correcting General Cunningham's version of the name, Dr. Führer twice confounds *tilâ*, 'stone,' with *tilâ*, 'virtue.']

Führer in January 1889, a large number of very interesting Jaina relics have been unearthed, namely:—a four-faced lion-capital of the Indo-Scythian period; a massive door-jamb, the three faces of which are divided into panels of equal size, containing scenes of domestic life represented under temple façades of the Nāsik cave pattern; several beautifully wrought panels, bearing inscriptions in the Maurya alphabet; twelve large statues of Digambara Tirthankaras, bearing inscriptions dated in the regnal years of the Indo-Scythian kings Kanishka Huvishka, and Vasudēva; and two colossal statues of Padmaprabhānātha, dated Samvat 1036, or A. D. 978, and Samvat 1134, or A. D. 1088,* being donative gifts of the Svētāmbara community of Mathurā.

Probably, on this mound stood the Upagupta monastery mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang, which General Cunningham identifies with the Yaśa Vihāra inside the Katrā. The railway from Mathurā to Brindāban has been cut through the lower terrace of the Katrā in January 1889, and during the excavations several Buddhist sculptures have been discovered, as well as a mutilated inscription of the Maukhari king Mahāditya, and a beautifully written slab, dated Samvat 1207, but partly damaged in the middle.

These inscriptions have been edited by Dr. Bühler for the *Epigraphia Indica*.

Page 138.—Concerning Jhāt, in the Allahabad District, the ancient Pratiśthānapura, the residence of Purāvas, the first prince of the lunar dynasty, the compiler remarks: "The only remains now existing are the ruined forts of Samudragupta and Hamsagupta. Fifteen years ago twenty-four gold coins of Kumāragupta were unearthed here." Does this mean that the names of Samudragupta and Hamsagupta are still remembered by the people? If so, the fact is curious. Who was Hamsagupta?

Page 222.—Dr. Führer here recapitulates the arguments already published in his Jaunpur volume, which convince him that Bhinlā Dih in the Basti District cannot be Kapilavastu, the birth-place of Buddha, as Mr. Carlleyle and Sir A. Cunningham confidently believed it to be. Dr. Führer successfully attacks some of Mr. Carlleyle's fancies, but I do not think that his criticisms justify the conclusion that it is "evident that Bhinlā Dih is *not* the ancient site of Kapilavastu." Some of Mr. Carlleyle's reasons for supposing it to be that site are undoubtedly

invalid, but Bhinlā Dih occupies approximately the position indicated by the Chinese travellers, and I do not see why it should not yet be proved to be Kapilavastu. But it must be admitted that satisfactory proof has not yet been given.

Page 229.—By an odd blunder Kumāragupta Mahendra is described as the son of Skandagupta.

Page 271.—"It is interesting to note that in 1876 several rectangular Chinese silver coins were found close to the river Ganges in a *dih* at 'Alāu'ddīnpur, about six miles west of Bāngarmāt," in the Unāo District of Oudh.

Page 274.—The ancient village of Sañchānkōṭ or Sujānkōṭ, on the right bank of the river Sāi in the Unāo District, is identified by Dr. Führer with the Sha-chi of Fa-Hian. Sir A. Cunningham held that both the Sha-chi of Fa-Hian and the Viśākhā of Hiuen Tsiang are represented by the existing town of Ayudhya, or Ajodhya, and that both are identical with Sākētam. Dr. Führer holds that Ayudhya = Sākētam = Viśākhā, but that Sañchānkōṭ = Sha-chi.

Pages 306—313.—The account given in these pages of Sāhēt-Māhēt in the Gōndā District, the site of the famous city of Śrāvastī, is the best yet published. But, remarks Dr. Führer, "notwithstanding the excavations made by General Cunningham in 1862 and 1876, and by Dr. Hoey, C.S., in 1885, as yet very little is known of the ruins covered with dense jungle* inside the old city, which must contain relics which would do much to elucidate some of the most interesting periods of Indian history. There can be no doubt whatever that a thorough and properly conducted excavation would be of great success, and yield many Buddhist and Jain relics; but it ought to be gone about in a scientific method."

Page 321.—Dr. Führer shows good reasons for believing that the well-known fort at Dalman on the Ganges, the most picturesque object in Oudh, was not originally a fort at all, but "consists really of two Buddhist *stūpas*."

Page 323.—The O'-yu-t'o of Hiuen Tsiang has been identified with so many old sites in Oudh, that I hope Dr. Führer is correct in asserting that on topographical grounds and from a calculation of distances it may safely be identified with Jagatpur in the Rāi Barēli District.

19th April 1892.

V. A. SMITH.

* There seems to be some mistake here: 1036—978 = 56, and 1134—1088 = 46. The passages in the text are quoted as amended by the list of Corrigenda.

* The author writes 'jungal,' but in this I decline to follow him. Nor can I consent to call my familiar friend, the coolie, by the outlandish name of 'qall.'

SOUTH-INDIAN COPPER COINS.

BY E. HULTZSCH, PH.D.; BANGALORE.

AS far as I can ascertain, the majority of the coins which form the subject of this paper, are now published for the first time. Others (Nos. 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14, 24, 27, 30) were included, because the previously published readings of their legends were more or less capable of improvement. Most of the coins form part of those which were selected from the collection of the late Mr. T. M. Scott, of Madura, for the Government Central Museum, Madras, by me and Mr. C. Rajagopala Chari. The abbreviations are the same as *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 301, with the following additions:—

Atkins = *The Coins and Tokens of the Possessions and Colonies of the British Empire*, by James Atkins; London, 1889.

Thurston = *History of the Coinage of the Territories of the East India Company in the Indian Peninsula, and Catalogue of the Coins in the Madras Museum*, by Edgar Thurston; Madras, 1890.

Tracy = *Pandyan Coins*, by the Rev. James E. Tracy, M. A.; *Madras Journal of Literature and Science for the Session 1887-88*.

Tufnell = *Hints to Coin-Collectors in Southern India*, by Captain R. H. C. Tufnell, M. S. C.; Madras, 1889.

Mr. B. Santappah, Curator of the Mysore Government Museum at Bangalore, has again obliged me by preparing the plaster casts, from which the accompanying Plates were copied.

I. VIJAYANAGARA COINS.

No. 1. Harihara. M.

Obv. A bull, facing the right; in front of it, a sword. On a specimen belonging to Mr. Tracy, a four-pointed star is visible over the back of the bull.

Rev.	{ प्रतापह राहर	Pratāpa-Ha- rāhara. ¹
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The legend is surmounted by symbols of the moon and the sun. This coin is a variety of the coin No. 3, *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 302.

No. 2. Mallikārjunarāya. MH.

Obv. An elephant, facing the left; above it, the Kanarese syllable *Nā*.

Rev.	{ ಮಲಿ ಕಾರ್ಜುನರಾಯ ಯ	Mali- kājunarā- yaru. ²
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No. 3. Ditto. M.

Same type as No. 2, but the elephant on the obverse faces the right.

This and the preceding coin closely resemble Sir W. Elliot's No. 92, on which see *ante*. Vol. XX. p. 304. Mallikārjuna was a son and successor of Dēvarāya II., whose latest date is Saka-Samvat 1371 expired, the cyclic year *Nukla*.³ An inscription of Mallikārjunadēva, the son of Dēvarāya, on the left of the entrance into the first *prākāra* of the Arulala-Perumal temple at Little Kāñchi is dated in Saka-Samvat 1387 expired, the cyclic year *Pārthiva*. He appears to have been succeeded by his brother Virūpākshadēva, whose inscription on the South

¹ Read *Harihara*.

² Read *Mallikārjunarāyaru*.

³ *South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. I. No. 81.

wall of the *Abhisheka-maṇḍapa* in the same temple is dated in 'Saka-Saṁvat 1392 expired, the cyclic year *Vikṛiti*.⁴ The two Tamil dates are as follows : —

A. Inscription of Mallikārjuna.

'Sri-Virapratāpa-Dēvarāya-mahārāyar kumārar Mallikā[r]jjunadēva-mahā[rā]yar pṛidivī-rājya[m]=ppaṇṇi aruḷāṇiṇṟa Sakābdam 1387ṇ mēl śellāṇiṇṟa P[ārd]dhiva-saṁvatsarattu Vṛiśchika-nāyairu pūrvva-pakshattu pūṟṇṇaiyum [N]āyarru-kkīlamaiyum perṟa Kāttigai-n[ā].

"While Mallikārjunadēva-mahārāya, the son of the glorious Virapratāpa-Dēvarāya-mahārāya, was pleased to rule the earth, — on the day of (*the nakshatra*) Kṛittikā, which corresponded to Sunday, the full-moon *tithi* of the first fortnight of the month of Vṛiśchika in the *Pārthiva* year, which was current after the 'Saka year 1387."

B. Inscription of Virūpāksha.

Sri-Dēvarāya-mahārāyar ku[mā]rar śrī-Virupākshadēva-mahārāyar⁵ p[ri]divi-rājyam paṇṇi aruḷāṇiṇṟa Sakābdam 1392ṇ mēl śellāṇiṇṟa Vikṛiti-saṁvatsarattu Magara-nāyarru a[pa]ra-pakshattu amāvāsyai[yum] Āditya-vāramum perṟa Tiruv[ḍṇat]tu nā A[r]tta-udaiya-puṇya-kālattilē.

"While the glorious Virūpākshadēva-mahārāya, the son of the glorious Dēvarāya-mahārāya, was pleased to rule the earth, — at the auspicious time of *Ardhōdaya* on the day of (*the nakshatra*) Śravaṇa, which corresponded to Sunday, the new-moon *tithi* of the second fortnight of the month of Makara in the *Vikṛiti* year, which was current after the 'Saka year 1392."

No. 4. *Sadaśivārāya*. MH.

Obv. God and goddess, seated.

Rev. {	शिवरा	[Sri-Sadā]-
	शिवरा	śivara-
	यारु	yaṛu.

This copper coin corresponds to the pagoda figured by Sir W. Elliot, No. 100 ; see *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 306, No. 32.

No. 5. *Ditto*. M.

Obv. A kneeling figure of Garuḍa, which faces the left.

Rev. Same as No. 4.

The obverse of this coin is an imitation of the copper issues of Kṛiṣṇarāya, *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 306, No. 28.

No. 6. *Tirumalarāya*, H.

Obv. A boar, facing the right ; above it, a sword and the sun,

Rev. {	ಶ್ರೀಶಿವ	[Sri-Ti]-
	ರಮಲಾ	rumala-
	ರಾಯ	rāya.

This coin is figured by Sir W. Elliot in the *Madras Journal*, New Series, Vol. IV. Plate i. No. 11. The execution of the Kanarese legend is so barbarous, that the reading would remain doubtful, unless a similar Nāgarī legend did occur on the coins figured *ibid.* Nos. 12 to 17, which have nearly the same obverse as the coin under notice. A correct transcript of the legend on the reverse of these coins was given *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 307.

⁴ See also Mr. Sewall's *Lists of Antiquities*, Vol. II. p. 245.

⁵ Read *Virūpāksha*.

II. CHOLA COIN.

No. 7. M.

(Elliot, No. 152).

The obverse and reverse are identical. In the centre is a seated tiger,—the emblem of the Chôla king,—facing the right, with two fishes,—symbols of the Pāṇḍya king,—in front, and a bow,—the emblem of the Chêra king,—behind. The whole group is flanked by two lamps and surmounted by a parasol and two *chauris*. Underneath is the legend:—

Obv. and Rev. {	गंगैकोण्ड	Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-
	चोलः	Chôla[h].

This coin is republished, because Mr. Thomas has misread it (Elliot, p. 132, note 1). The name or surname Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôla, "the Chôla (king) who conquered the Gaṅgâ," survives to the present day in Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Sôlapuram, the name of a ruined city in the Uḍaiyārpālaiyam tālukâ of the Trichinopoly district. The earliest reference to this city is in a Tañjāvūr inscription of the 19th year of the reign of Parakêsarivarman, *alias* Rājendra-Chôladêva.⁶ As this king claims to have conquered the Gaṅgâ,⁷ it is not unreasonable to suppose that he bore the surname Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôla (I.), and that both the foundation of the city and the issue of the coin are due to him. A proof for the correctness of this supposition may perhaps be derived from the unpublished inscriptions on the walls of the ruined Brihadîśvara temple at Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Sôlapuram. This temple is called Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôlêśvara in four Pāṇḍya inscriptions, while a mutilated inscription of Kulôttuṅga-Chôladêva I. refers to a temple named Rājendra-Sôla-îśvara. If, — what is very probable, — this temple has to be taken as identical with the first, it would follow that the founder of the îśvara (Śiva) temple at Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Sôlapuram bore the two names Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôla and Rājendra-Chôla. Further, the surname Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôla is applied to the maternal grandfather of Kulôttuṅga I. in the *Kaliṅgattu-Parani* (x. 5). Though the same poem (x. 3) gives the real name of Kulôttuṅga's grandfather as Râjarâja, there is no doubt that, as Dr. Fleet (*ante*, Vol. XX. p. 279 f.) points out, this is a mistake or an inaccurate expression for Rājendra-Chôla, who, as we know from the Chellûr grant, was the father of Ammaṅgadêvi, the mother of Kulôttuṅga I. A coin which resembles the one under notice, but bears the Nâgarî legend *Sri-Rājendrah* (Elliot, No. 153),⁸ may be attributed to Parakêsarivarman, *alias* Rājendradêva. An unpublished inscription of this king at Maṇimaṅgalam in the Chingleput district mentions a Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôla (II.) who was the uncle of, and received the title Îrmaḍi-Chôla from, the reigning king. Subsequent to the time of Rājendra-Chôla, the next mention of Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Sôlapuram is in an unpublished inscription of Râjakêsarivarman, *alias* Vira-Rājendradêva, at Karuvûr in the Coimbatore district. This inscription also refers to a son of the king, whose name was Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Chôla (III.), and on whom the title Chôla-Pāṇḍya⁹ and the sovereignty over the Pāṇḍya country were conferred by his father. According to the *Kaliṅgattu-Parani*,¹⁰ Gaṅgâpurî, i.e. Gaṅgaikoṇḍa-Sôlapuram, continued to be the royal residence in the time of Kulôttuṅga-Chôladêva I. (A.D. 1063 to 1112). In Bilhapa's *Vikramâṅkadêvacharita* (iv. 21, and vi. 21) the city is mentioned under the name Gaṅga-kundapura, which the Western Châlukya king Vikramâditya VI. is said to have taken twice.

III. MADURA COINS.

No. 8. MH.

Obv. Two fishes.

Rev. (Tamil.) {	Śrî-Avaṇi-
	paśêgaraṇ=
	gôlaga.

⁶ *South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. II. p. 105.⁷ *ibid.* p. 109, and Vol. I. p. 99.⁸ A third coin of similar type (No. 154) has *Uttama-Chôla* in Nâgarî, and a fourth (No. 151) *Uttama-Chôlan* in Grantha characters.⁹ Not Sundara-Pāṇḍya-Chôla, as stated in Dr. Burnell's *South-Indian Palæography*, 2nd edition, p. 45, note 1.¹⁰ *ante*, Vol. XIX. p. 389.

"The round coin (?) of the glorious *Avanipasēkhara* (i. e. the ornament of princes)."

No. 9. MH.

(Elliot, No. 139).

Obv. A standing figure, facing the right.

Rev. { *Sōnâ-*
(Tamiḷ.) { *ḍu ko-*
 { *ṇḍāṇ.*

"He who conquered the Chōḷa country."¹¹ The correct reading and explanation of this legend is due to my First Assistant, Mr. Venkayya.

No. 10. MH.

Obv. Same as No. 9.

Rev. Two fishes; between them, the Tamiḷ legend :—

El-
lā-
nta-
laiy-
āṇāṇ.

No. 11. MH.

(Elliot, Nos. 137 and 160).

Obv. Same as Nos. 9 and 10.

Rev. Two fishes, surrounded by the Tamiḷ legend *Ellāntalaiyā*.

No. 12. MH.

(Elliot, No. 136).

Obv. Same as Nos. 9 to 11, with the addition of the Tamiḷ syllable *Su* on the right side.

Rev. A fish between two lamps, surrounded by the same legend as on No. 11

No. 13. MH.

Obv. Same as Nos. 9 to 11.

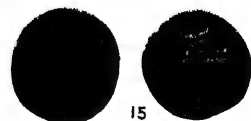
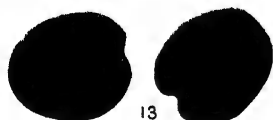
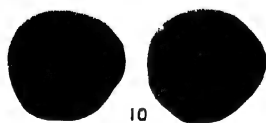
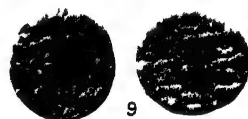
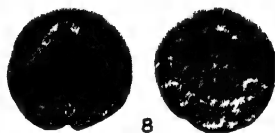
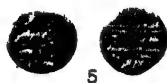
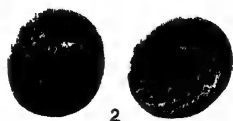
Rev. { El-
(Tamiḷ.) { lān-
 { talai-
 { yā.

The legends of Nos. 11 to 13 appear to be abbreviations of the longer legend of No. 10, which on some specimens is further shortened into *Ellāntalai*. Mr. Tracy, p. 2 f. pointed out that Sir W. Elliot's reading *Samarakōlāhala* is impossible, and suggested *Ellānagaraiyāḷan* instead. But the syllable which he reads *rai*, is clearly *lai* on all the coins. The preceding syllable might be *ka*, *ga* or *ta*, *ḍa*; the sense requires the second alternative. The last syllable is distinctly *ṇāṇ* on No. 10. *Ellān-talaiy-āṇāṇ* means "he who is the chief of the world" and appears to be the Tamiḷ original of the Sanskrit epithets *viśvōttarakṣmābhṛt*, *sarvōttarakṣmābhṛt*, and *sarvōttarṇanahābhṛt*, "the king who is the chief of the world," which occur in verses 7, 8 and 15 of an unpublished inscription of Sundara-Pāṇḍya on the East wall of the second *prākāra* of the Baṅganātha temple at Sriraṅgam. I would accordingly attribute the issue of the coins Nos. 10 to 13 to Sundara-Pāṇḍya, who ascended the throne in Saka-Saṃvat

¹¹ *Sōnāṇ* is a contraction of *Sōlanāṇ*, as *Malāṇ* of *Malaināṇ*; see below, p. 344, and *South-Indian Inscriptions*, Vol. II. p. 167, note 5, and p. 229, note 2

SOUTH-INDIAN COPPER COINS.

Plate i.



FULL-SIZE.

A 9897P

From Casts made by Mr. B. SANTAPPAN, Curator, Bangalore Museum.

1173 (*ante*, p. 122). This supposition is further strengthened by the fact that, on the obverse of some copies of the coins Nos. 10 to 13 (*e. g.* on No. 12 of Plate i), we find the Tamil syllable *Nu*, which appears to be an abbreviation of *Sundara-Pāṇḍiyan*. Compare *Dē* for *Dēvarāya*; *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 303, No. 12.

No. 14. Viśvanātha. M.

(Tracy, No. 9).

Obv. Same as No. 13.

Rev. A sceptre between two fishes, surmounted by a crescent and surrounded by the Tamil-Grantha legend:—

[1.] Vi- [5.] ṇ.
[2.] śva- [4.] da-
[3.] nā-

Mr. Tracy, p. 6, took the final Tamil ṇ for a Grantha s, and the Grantha group śva for a Tamil va.

No. 15. Ditto. M.

Obv. A sceptre between two fishes.

Rev. A crescent; below it, the Tamil-Grantha legend:—

Viśva-
nāda-
ṇ.

No. 16. Ditto. M.

Obv. A sceptre between two fishes; above them, the Tamil legend:—

Pāṇ-
ḍiyan.

Rev. The same legend as on No. 15.

Nos. 14 to 16 belong to Viśvanātha, the first Nāyaka of Madura (A. D. 1559 to 1563). No. 16 shows that he wanted to be considered as the rightful successor of the Pāṇḍya dynasty.

No. 17. MH.

Obv. A standing figure.

Rev. { $\begin{matrix} \text{வெங்க} \\ \text{பா} \end{matrix}$ } Veṅka-
ṭapa.

This is a variety of No. 37, *ante*, Vol. XX. p. 308.

No. 18. H.

Obv. Three standing figures.

Rev. { $\begin{matrix} \text{வெங்க} \\ \text{பாநா} \\ \text{யக} \end{matrix}$ } Veṅka-
[ṭa]panā-
[yaka].

No. 19. MH.

Obv. A kneeling figure, which faces the right.

Rev. { $\begin{matrix} \text{Vi-} \\ \text{rabha-} \\ \text{dra.} \end{matrix}$ } (Grantha.)

No. 20. MH.

Obv. A kneeling figure of Garuḍa, which faces the right.

Rev. { ಶ್ರೀ 'Sri-A-
 ೦೦೩ namta.

It is not known to which of the rulers of Madura the names **Virabhadra** and **Ananta** on the reverse of Nos. 19 and 20 refer. But the style of the kneeling figure on the obverse connects the Grantha coin No. 19 with the Tamil coins of Bhuvanaikavira (Elliot's No. 138) and Samarakôlâhala, and the Kanarese coin No. 20 with the Nâgarî coins of Kṛishṇarâya and Sadâsivarâya (No. 5, above).

No. 21. H.

Obv. A lion, facing the right.

Rev. { Minâ-
(Tamil.) { tchi.

Minâkshi is the name of the goddess of Madura. According to Mr. Sewell's *Lists of Antiquities*, Vol. II. p. 203, queen **Minâkshi** of the Nâyaka dynasty ruled from A. D. 1731 to 1736. The reverse of the coin may refer to the goddess, or to the queen, or to both at the same time.

No. 22. MH.

Obv. Same as No. 21.

Rev. { Madu-
(Tamil.) { rai.

No. 23. MH.

Obv. మధురై Madhurâi.

Rev. Same as No. 22.

The obverse of No. 22 connects this coin with No. 21. The bilingual coin No. 23 agrees with No. 22 in the reverse, which bears the Tamil name of the city of Madura, while its Telugu equivalent occupies the obverse.

IV. BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY COINS.

No. 24. MH.

(Tufnell, No. 49; Thurston, Plate xii, No. 1).

Obv. శ్రీ 'Sri.
Rev. { Kum-
(Tamil.) { pipi.

No. 25. MH.

Obv. An eight-pointed star.

Rev. Same as No. 24.

The reverse of Nos. 24 and 25 is an early attempt to transliterate the word "**Company**" in the vernacular character. The auspicious monosyllable **Śrī** (Fortune) appears to be inserted on the obverse of No. 24 from similar motives as the word **Śrīraṅga** on Nos. 26 to 29.

No. 26. H.

Obv. An orb, surmounted by a cross.

Rev. { శ్రీ 'Sri-
 ౦౦౫ raṅga.¹²

¹² On some specimens of this and the next coins, the second line of the legend reads ౦౫౦ instead of ౦౦౫

SOUTH-INDIAN COPPER COINS.

Plate ii.



FULL-SIZE.

From Casts made by Mr. B. SANTAPPAN, Curator, Bangalore Museum.

No. 27. H.—A.D. 1678 (P).

(Atkins, p. 140, No. 34).

Obv. Same as No. 26, but the figure 78 inscribed in the lower portion of the orb.

Rev. Same as No. 26, with the addition of a double line between the two lines of the legend.

Mr. Atkins attributes this coin to the Bombay Presidency; but the Southern characters on the reverse prove it to be a Madras issue.

No. 28. H.—A.D. 1698.

Obv. { $\frac{16}{98}$ } in a circle.

Rev. Same as No. 27.

No. 29. H.—A.D. 1705.

(Thurston, Plate xii. No. 3 P).

Obv. Same as No. 26, but the figures 17 and 05 inscribed in the upper and lower half of the orb.

Rev. Same as Nos. 27 and 28.

The word *Śrīraṅga*, which appears on the reverse of Nos. 26 to 29, is, as a neuter, the name of a celebrated shrine of Viṣṇu near Trichinopoly, but is also used in the masculine gender as an epithet of the god Viṣṇu himself. This reverse was probably selected by the Company with the view of making their coin popular with the native public, and of matching the image of Viṣṇu, which was engraved on all the Madras pagodas.

V.—FRENCH COIN OF KARIKAL.

No. 30. H.

(Tufnell, No. 48).

Obv. { Pudu-
(Tamil.) { chchê-
ri.

Rev. { Kâ-
(Tamil.) { raik-
kâl.¹³

Puduchchêri and Karaikkâl are the original Tamil forms of the names of the French settlements Pondicherry and Karikal.

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

(Continued from page 311.)

20. mahāniyamthijjāṃ (cf. chap. 6), mahānirgrāṃthiyāṃ; anāhapavvayyā S; 60 vv. Of the anāthatvaṃ; Sēṇiḍ Magahāhivō v. 2. The title found in S agrees with the contents (as was the case with 6 and 7).

21. samuddapālijjāṃ (°lejjāṃ V), samudrapāliyyāṃ, 24 vv. Of the viviktacharyā. Begins: Chāmpāē Pāliē nāma | sāvāē āsi vāṇiē | Mahāvīrassa bhagavaō | sīsō sō u mahappaṇō ||

¹³ No. 30 a of Plate ii shows the first and second lines of the obverse, and the second and third lines of the reverse; No. 30 b exhibits the second and third lines of the obverse, and the first and second lines of the reverse.

22. rahanēmijjāṃ, 49 vv. Of the anōrathanēmivach charaṇaṃ; utpannaviśrōtasikēnā 'pi dhṛitih kāryā. Begins: [47] Sōriyapurammi nayaṛē | āsi rāyā mahiḍḍhiē | Vasudēva 'tti nāmē-
naṃ | rāyalakkhaṇasāmjuē || 1 || tassa bhajjā duvē āsi | Rōhiṇi Dēvaī tahā | tāsim duphaṃ pi dō
puttā | tīthā Rāma-Kēsavā || 2 || v. 1^{ab} | Samuddavijjā nāmaṃ | v. 1^d || 3 || tassa bhajjā Sivā
nāma | tīsē puttē mahāyāsē | bhagavaṃ Aritṭhanēmi tti | lōganāhē damīsare || 4 || . .

23. Kēsi-Gōyamiijjāṃ, Kēsi-Gautamiyāṃ; Gōtamakēsiyyāṃ S; 89 vv.; chittaviplutih
parēśhām api Kēsi-Gautamavad apanēyā. Begins: jīṇē Pāsi tti nāmēnaṃ | arahā lōgapūiē | . .
|| 1 || tassa lōgapāivassa | āsi sīsē mahāyāsē | Kēsi Kumārasamaṇē | vijjācharapapāragē || 2 ||
See p. 337 on upāṃga 2.

24. samītu, samitīō S, pavayaṇamāyārō (!) C; 27 vv. Of the pravachanamātṛisvarūpaṃ,
i. e. the 5 samiti and 3 gupti, which are together also called atṭha samitīō: iriyā-bhāsē-saṇā
dāṇē uchehārē samīi iya | maṇōguttī vayaguttī kāyaguttī ya atṭhamā || 2 ||. These are regarded
as the mothers as regards the duvālasaṃgaṃ Jīṇakkhāyāṃ pavayaṇaṃ. See *Ind. Streifen*,
1, 133, 200, 2, 047, in reference to the ethical three-fold division into maṇō, vāya, kāya.

25. jannaījjaṃ, yajñīyaṃ, 45 vv. Jayaghōshacharitavarṇanadvārēṇa brahmagunā ihō
'chyaṃtē. Begins: māhaṇakulasambhūō | āsi vippō mahājasō | jūyāi-jamajannammi (yamayañjē)
| Jayaghōsu tti nāmāō || 1 ||

26. sāmāyārī, dasasā° C, 53 vv. Only he who is in possession of the brahmagunās (chap.
25) is a yati, tēna chā 'vaśyaṃ sāmāchārī vidhēyā. This is ten-fold:³⁴ [48] āvassiyā, nisīhiyā,³⁵
āpuchhanā, paḍipuchhanā, chhamḍaṇā, ichhākārō, michhākārō, tahakkārō, abbhūṭṭhāpāṃ, uvasam-
payā. The similar enumeration in *Āvaśy. nijj.* 7, 12, where there is, however, a different
arrangement (the same as in aṅga 3, 10, and Bhag. 25, 7 according to L.): — ichhākārō, michhā,
tahakkārō (6—8), āva° . . chhamḍaṇā (1—5), nimaṃtaṇā (instead of 9), uvasampayā (10). — Hari-
bhadrā on *Āvaśy. nijj.* 6, 38, says³⁶ that there are three kinds of sāmāchārī, 1. the ōghasāmāchārī,
represented by the ōghaniriyukti, on the 20th prābhṛitaṃ (ōghaprā°) of the 3. vastu (āchārābhi-
dhāna) pūrva 9, 2. the dasavidhasāmāchārī, for which our chapter and *Āv. nijj.* 7 is authorita-
tive, and 3. the padavibhāgasāmāchārī, which too is represented by chhēdasūtralakṣhaṇāṃ nava-
māt pūrvād ēva nirvyūḍha, or by kalpavyavahārau.³⁷ — Begins: sāmāyārīṃ pavakkhāmi savvaduk-
khavimukkhāṇi | jaṃ charittāṇa niggamthā | tinnā samsārasāgaraṃ || 1 ||

27. khalumkijjaṃ, khulu° V, 15 vv. Of the saṭhatā; the asathatā is the antecedent
condition for the sāmāchārī. It begins: thēē gaṇaharē Gagjē (Gārgya) muni āsi visārāē |
āinnē gaṇibhāvammi samāhiṇi paḍisaṃdhāē || 1 || The name comes from v. 3: khalumkē jō u
jōēi, khalumkāṇ galivṛisabhāṇ (s. Hēm. 1263) yō yōjayati.

28. mukkkhamaggagaṇi, sivamagga° C, 36 vv. Of the mōkshamārga. Begins: mukkkhamag-
gagaṇi tachechaṃ | supēha jīṇabhāsiyāṃ . .

29. sammattaparakkamaṃ, samyaktva°; appamāō S. In prose; anamāraṃ (in chap. 28)
jūnādāni muktimārgatvēnō 'ktāni, tāni cha saṃvēgādīmūlāni akarmatāvāsānāni; [49] yadvā
mōkshamārgagatēr apamāda ēva (on this then is based the title in S) pradhānaṃ. Enumeration
of the 73 saṃvēgādīni, means of deliverance (cf. Leumann, Gloss. Aup. p. 155, s. v. saṃvējana):
saṃvēgē 1, nivvēē 2, dhammasaddhā 3, gurusāhammiyasūsāṇayā 4, ālōṇayā 5, nimḍaṇayā
6, garihaṇayā 7, sāmāiē and the remaining 5 āvassaya 8—12 etc. to akammayā 73 (cf. the 48
saṃvēgādīni, Bhagav. 16, 3, and 27 saṃv. in aṅga 4, 27, Leum.). As in the beginning (see p. 43)
so in the end there is a direct reference to Mahāvīra: ēsa khalu sammattaparakkamassa ajja-
yaṇassa atṭhē samāṇēnaṃ bhagavayā Mahāvīrēṇaṃ agghaviē pannaviḍ parūviē dāmsiē nidaṃsiē
uvadāmsiē tti bēmi.

³⁴ The word sāmāyārī recalls especially the *sīmayaśchārīkasūtra* of the Brahmins, with which the significance
and contents of these texts is in agreement. From this I am led to conclude that sāmāyārī is an intentional
deformation of sīmayaśchārī; see pp. 228, 238, 243 fg.

³⁵ naishēdhikī, see pp. 452, 257.

³⁶ See pp. 357, 449.

³⁷ The three sāmāyārī texts which I have before me — see pp. 228, 369 fg. — contain another division than
that stated above. Their contents is, however, connected, and they agree in the main with each other.

30. tavamaggiyam, °ggô S, °maijjam V, 37 vv., tapô-mârgagati. Begins: jahâ u pâvagam kamman râgadôsasamajjiyam | Khavêi tavasâ bhikkhû tam êgagamanô supa || 1 ||

31. charaṇavihi, 21 vv.; charaṇavidhi.

32. pamâyaṭṭhânam, 111 vv.; pramâdasthânani. Begins: achchaṃtakâlassa samûlayassa | savvassa dukkhassa u jô pamâkkhō | tam bhāsaō mē paḍipunnachittā | suṇēha êgamantahiyaṃ hiyaṭṭham.

33. kammapayaḍi, karmaprakṛitih, 25 vv. Begins: aṭṭha kammāim (cf. Bhag. 2, 166) vuchhāmi | āṇupuvvīm jahakkamaṃ | jēhim baddhē ayaṃ jivē | samsārē parivattāē || 1 || nāpassā "varaṇijjam | daṃsaṇāvaraṇaṃ taḥā | vēyaṇijjam | taḥā mōham | āṇukammaṃ taḥēva ya || 1 || nāmakayyaṃ cha gōyaṃ cha | aṃtarāyaṃ taḥēva ya. Closes: ēēsim samvarē chēva | khavaṇē ya jāē (yatēta) buhē tti bēmi || 1 || The nāpam e. g. is (see N. Anny. Āvaśy. Aupap. p. 41) five-fold: suyaṃ, ābhiniḍōhiyaṃ, ōhināṇaṃ, maṇaṇaṇaṃ, kēvalaṃ.

34. lēsajjhayaṇaṃ, lēsyā°, 62 vv.; anantaram (in 33) prakṛitaya uktās, tatsthitis cha lēsyā-vaśataḥ; apra[40]śastalēsyātyāgataḥ praśestā ēva tā adhisṭhātataṇyāḥ. Begins: lēsajjhayaṇaṃ pavakkhāmi | āṇupuvvīm jahakkamaṃ chhaṇhaṃ pi kammalēsāṇaṃ | aṇubhāvē suṇēha mē || 1 || Closes: appasatthān vajjittā | pasatthān ahiṭṭhāē (adhiṭṭishṭhēt) muni tti bēmi || 62 || Bhag. 1, 160, Leum. Aup. p. 149.

35. aṇagāramaggaṃ, °ggô S, °ggô V; 21 vv.; himsāparivarjanādayō bhikkhugunāḥ. Begins: suṇēha mē êgamaṇā magjam Savvannudēsiyaṃ | jam āyaraṃtō bhikkhū | dukkhāṇa 'utkarō bhavē || 1 || Closes: nimmamō nirahamkārō vīyarāgō aṇāsavō | sampattō kēvalaṃ nāṇaṃ sāsayaṃ parinivvuda tti bēmi || 1 ||

36. jivājivavibhatti, 268 vv. Begins: jivājivavibhattim | suṇēha mē êgamaṇā iō | jam jāṇiṭṭa bhikkhū | sammaṃ jayaī samjamē || 1 || Closes: ii paṇkāre buddhē | pāyāē parinivvūē | chattiṣaṃ uttarajjhāē | bhavasiddhiṣaṃ sammaī (samvudē A) tti bēmi || 268 ||

At the end in some MSS. of the text and in the scholiast there are added some variant verses of the niryuktikāra in praise of the work: jē kira bhavasiddhiā | parittasamsāriā a jē bhavvā | tē kira paḍhamti ēē | chhattiṣaṃ uttarajjhāē || 1 || . . .

XLIV Second mūlasūtram, āvaśyakasūtram. By āvaśyaka, as we have often seen in the case of painna 1, Nandī and Anuyōgadv., are meant six observances which are obligatory upon the Jain, be he layman or clerical. That the regulations in reference to these observations had an established text as early as the date of N and An., is clear from the fact that they appear in the Nandī as the first group of the aṇaṃgapaviṭṭha texts (see above p. 11); and in the Anuyōgadv. the word ajjhayanachhakkavagga is expressly given as its synonym. See p. 22. We have also seen [51] that the Anuyōgadvārasūtram claims to contain a discussion of the first of these 6 āvaśyakas (the sāmāyam), but that this claim is antagonistic to that limitation of the sāmāyam to the sāvaṇṇajjōgaviratīn which frequently secures the Anny. By this limitation an ethical character is ascribed to the work, the contents of which is, furthermore, at variance with the claim made by the Anny.

The āvaśyakasūtram is a work which deals with all the six āvaśyakas in the order³⁸ which is followed in the Nandī and Anuyōgadvāra, and discusses the sāmāyam actually, not merely nominally as the Annyōg. does. Unfortunately we possess, not the text of the āvaśy., but merely the commentary, called *śiṣyāhitā*, of an Haribhadra,³⁹ which is as detailed as that on mūlas.

³⁸ See p. 484 on this arrangement.

³⁹ At the close he is called a pupil of Jinadatta from the Vidyādharakula, or an adherent of Sitāmbarāchārya Jinabhatta: samāptā chē 'yaṃ śiṣyāhitā nāmā "vaśyakaṣṭkā, kritih Sitāmbarāchārya Jinabhattanigadānusaṛiṇō Vidyādharakulatilakāchārya Jinadattaśiṣyasya dharmatō jōṇi (yākinī) - mahattarāmnānāralpamānārā(ṇ)chārya Haribhadrasya. The Gaṇadharasārḍhasata is here referred to (cf. v. 52 fg.) and the great Haribhadra († Vira 1055); see pp. 371, 372, 456 fg. In Peterson's *Detailed Report* (1893) we find cited (pp. 6-9) under No. 12 a vṛitti of a Śrī-Tilakāchārya, scholar of Śivaprabha, composed samvat 1296.

1. Of this commentary there is but one MS., which, though written regularly enough, is very incorrect and fails in every way to afford the reader any means of taking a survey of its contents by the computation of the verses, etc. It labours under the defect of such manuscript commentaries in citing⁴⁰ the text with the *pratīkas* only and not in full, with the exception of foll. 78^b to 153^{b41} and some other special passages. The text is divided according to the commentary into [52] the six ajjhayaṇas, with which we are already acquainted: — 1. the sāmāiam, the sāvajjajōgaviraī, which extends to fol. 196^b, 2. the chaūvisāthava or praise of the 24 Jinas, extending to 204^b, 3. vaṃḍaṇayaṃ or honor paid to the teachers, reaching to 221^a, 4. paḍikkamaṇaṃ, confession and renunciation (to 298^b), 5. kausṣaga, expiation to (315^a), and 6. pachchakkhaṇaṃ, acceptance of the twelve vratas (to 342^a).

By sāmāiam much more than the sāvajjajōgaviraī is meant. It is etymologically explained by samānāṃ jñānadarsanachārītrāṇaṃ āyaḥ (35^b). It treats not merely of the doctrine of Mahāvīra on this point, but also of the history of the doctrine itself, i. e. of the predecessors of Māhāv., of himself, of his eleven gaṇaharas and of his opponents, the different schisms (nīṇhagas, nīṇhavas) which gradually gained a foothold in his teachings. The latter are chronologically fixed. Haribhadra quotes very detailed legends (kathānakas) in Prākṛit prose (sometimes in metre) in this connection and also in connection with the diṭṭhamta and udāharana which are frequently mentioned in the text. These legends have doubtless been borrowed from one of his predecessors whose commentary was composed in Prākṛit. The remarks of this predecessor, cited elsewhere either directly as those of the Bhāṣhyakāra (see on Nijj. 10, 47), or without further comment or mention of his name, he has incorporated into his own commentary. This too was here and there composed in Prākṛit. Occasional reference is made to a mūlaṭikā (see on Nijj. 19, 122), which in turn appears to have been the foundation of the Bhāṣhyakāra.

[53] Even if we do not possess the text of the śhaḍāvaśyakasūtram with its six ajjhayaṇas which was commented upon by Haribhadra, our loss is to a great degree compensated by a metrical Nijjuttī. This is even called āvaśyakasūtram at the close in the MSS., and is probably the only *Āvaśy.* text which is extant.⁴² At least Haribhadra regarded it as an integral portion of his text. He has incorporated it, with but a few omissions, into his commentary, and commented upon it verse for verse. He cites its author not merely as Niryuktikṛit, °kāra, (e. g. on chap. 16, 17) as Saṃgrahaṇikāra, as Mūlabhāṣyakṛit (e. g. 2, 13a), or even merely as Bhāṣhyakāra (e. g. on 2, 70, 142, i. e. just as the author of the above mentioned commentary in Prākṛit prose) but also occasionally as grāṇthakāra, °kṛit (see for example Nijj. 8, 44, 10, 55), and even as sūtrakāra, °kṛit (e. g. Nijj. 1, 70, 16, 50). The verses of the Nijj. are occasionally called⁴³ sūtras by him! From a consideration of these facts we are led to the conclusion that the sole difference between the text commented on by Har. and the Nijj. lies in the different division — the text being divided into 6, the Nijj. into 20 ajjhayaṇas. See below. The fact that Har. does not cite at all some sections of the Nijjuttī (for example the Thērāvalī at the very start) may, however, be held to militate against the above conclusion. His text too contains besides the Nijj. several other parts, chiefly in prose, [54] which he calls sūtras or words of the sūtrakāra (see Nijj. 13, 53), e. g. especially a pratīkramaṇasūtram given *in extenso*. He furthermore occasionally contrasts the sūtragāthā or mūlasūtragāthā with the gāthās of the Niryuktikāra. See on Niry. 11, 39, 61.⁴⁴

With this the following fact is in agreement: — several times in the MSS. of the Nijj. there are inserted in the text short remarks in Sanskrit which refer to the proper sūtram. This sūtram has, however, not been admitted into the text, e. g. Nijj. 10, 2, 12, 17a. In one case, chap. 20, this sūtra portion (in prose) has actually been incorporated into the Nijj.

⁴⁰ 342 foll. Each page has 17 lines of 58—63 akṣh. each.

⁴¹ Nijj. 8, 315—9, 3.

⁴² Cf., however, the āvaśyakaśrutaskandha in Kielhorn's *Report*, 1881, p. 92, and the śhaḍāvaśyakasūtram in Bühler's paper in the *Journal of the Vienna Acad.* 1881, p. 574.

⁴³ e. g. taṭhā ohā 'hā' padāśikāṃ gāthāsūtram āha Niryuktikārah : samsāra' (2, 19).

⁴⁴ In other passages, however, he says that the verses even of the Nijj. are sūtras! See p. 58, note 2.

It is, furthermore, noteworthy that in the Nijjuttī, too, Haribhadra distinguishes different constituent parts and different authors (see p. 53). He refers its verses at one time to the niryukti(kāra), mūlabhāṣhyakāra,⁴⁵ and at another to the saṃgrahanīkāra, or even sūtrakṛit (!). He thus brings these verses into direct contrast with each other⁴⁶ and subjects them to different treatment, by citing some, perhaps those of more recent date, in full, [55] either word for word or without commentary; while the remainder he cites as a rule merely by their *pratikas* and then explains, first by a gamanikā, or akṣharagam., i. e. a translation of each word, and finally by expository remarks called out by the nature of the subject.⁴⁷

Haribhadra too appears to have found a special defect existing in his sūtra text. Between chapters 8 and 9 of the Nijj. we ought to find the sūtrasparśinī nijjuttī according to his statement; but: nō 'chyatē, yasmād asati sūtrē (!) kasyā 'sāv iti. Haribhadra devotes a long discussion to sūtras in general, which recurs Nijj. 10, 2, 89, 11, 7 (sūtra and niryukti), 12, 17, 13, 55.

Using due caution in reference to an explanation of the mutual relation which exists in our text between Sutta and Nijjuttī, and in reference to the form of the text of the Āvaśyakam which existed in the time of Haribhadra, I subjoin a review of the 20 ajjhayaṇas of the existing Nijj. The two MSS. which I possess (the second I call B) show many divergences from one another, some of which are explainable on the score of inexact computation of the verses. Other MSS. contain much greater variations. The passages cited in Jacobi, Kalpas. p. 100 (104) as 2, 97, and p. 101 as 2, 332, are e. g. here 3, 281 (291), 332 (342). Very great divergences come to light in the two MSS. in Peterson's [56] *Detailed Report* (1883), pp. 124 and 127. These MSS. are numbered Nos. 273 (= P) and 306 (= π, with a break in the beginning; and chapters 1, 2 and 6 are lost). The text is composed exclusively in gāthās. One of its special peculiarities is formed by the frequent dāragāhās, i. e. verses which state briefly the contents of what follows, principally by the enumeration of the catch-words or titles of paragraphs. Unfortunately the use or denotation of these verses is not regular; from which fact the benefit to be derived from this otherwise excellent method of division is materially reduced. The Nom. Sgl. Masc. 1. Decl. ends, with but very few exceptions, in ō.

It must be prefaced that Haribhadra treats chap. 1—10 under ajjhayaṇa 1, 11—12 under ajjh. 2 and 3 respectively, 13—18 under ajjh. 4, and the last two chapters under ajjh. 5 and 6 respectively. This is done, however, without specially marking off the conclusions of the chapters of the Nijj.⁴⁸ Only the conclusions of the six ajjhayaṇas are distinguished from the others.

1. peḍhiā, pīṭhikā, 131 vv. (in P the thirāvālī has nominally 125 and peḍhiyā 81 gā°!) It begins with the same Thērāvālī (50 vv.) that occurs in the beginning of the Nandī, and treats, from v. 51 on, of the different kinds of nāpa (cf. Nandī and Anuyōgadv.). Haribhadra does not explain the Thērāvālī at all and begins his commentary (fol. 3) at v. 51: ābhiniḃā. hianāṇaṃ | suanāṇaṃ chēva ōhināṇaṃ cha | taha maṇapajjavanāṇaṃ | kēvalanāṇaṃ cha paṃchamayaṃ || 51 ||

⁴⁵ e. g. 4, 3, iyaṃ niryuktigāthā, ētāṃ tu mūlabhāṣhyakāragāthā: bhūmatṭha° (4, 4—6).

⁴⁶ The sūtrakṛit appears here as later than the saṃgrahanīkāra, fol. 260a: — tān abhidhīsur āha saṃgrahanīkārah: ambhē (Nijj. 16, 49) gāhā, asi° (49) gāthā; idaṃ gāthādvayaṃ sūtrakṛin-niryuktigāthābhīr ēva prakāṣārthābhīr vyākhyāyatē (sūtrakṛitā . . vyākhyāyatē or sūtrakṛin niryu° . . vyākhyāti would be better); dhādamti padhāḍaṃ ti . . ; then follows the text of Nijj. 16, 50—54 in full but without commentary. Here it is to be noticed that one of the MSS. of the Nijj. in my possession omits these 15 verses from the text. See p. 59 in regard to the assumption that the Nijj. is the work of several authors.

⁴⁷ An occasional reference to other methods of treating the subject is found, e. g. 2, 61, iti samāsārthah, vyāsārthas tu viśēshavivaraṇād avagantavyah. Or on 10, 12, iti gāthākṣharārthah, bhāvārthas tu bhāṣhyagāthābhīyō 'vasēyah, tās chē 'māh (in Prākṛit, but not from the Nijj.)

⁴⁸ Chapter 8 forms an exception, though at the end at least it says: samāptā chē 'yam upōdghātāniryuktir iti, but in such a way that it is not mentioned as the "eighth chapter"; nor is the statement made that it is concluded.

[57] 2. paḍhamā varachariā, 173 (178 P, 179 B) vv., treats, from v. 69 on, of the circumstances of the lives, etc., of the 24 Jinās, especially of Usabha, the first of their number. In the introduction it is of extreme interest to notice the statements of the author in reference to his own literary activity. It is as follows :

titthayarē bhagavaṁtē | aṇuttaraparakkamē amianāṇi | tinnē sugaigaigāē | siddhipahapāṣē
vaṁdē || 1 ||

vaṁdāmi mahābhāgaṁ | mahāmuṇiṁ mahāyasaṁ Mahāviraṁ | amaranararāyamahiam |
titthayaram imassa titthassa || 2 || ikkārasa vi gaṇaharē | pavāyāē pavayaṇassa vaṁdāmi |
savvaṁ gaṇaharavaṁsaṁ | vāyagavaṁsaṁ pavayaṇaṁ cha || 3 || tē vaṁdiṇa sirasā | atthapu-
huttassa⁴⁹ tēhiṁ kahiassa | suanāṇassa bhagavaō | niyyuttim⁵⁰ kittāṣṣāmi || 4 || āvassagassa
dasakā- | liassa taha uttarajjha-m-āyārē⁵¹ | suagaḍē niyyuttim | buchohāmi taha dasāṇaṁ
cha || 5 || kappassa ya niyyuttim | vavahārassē 'va paramaniṇassa | sūriapaṇṇattīē | buchchham
isibhāsiṇaṁ⁵² cha || 6 ||

ēṣim niyyuttim | buchchhāmi ahaṁ jīḍvāṣṣeṇaṁ | āharapaṇhēukārāṇa- | payanivaham iṇaṁ
samāseṇaṁ || 7 ||

sāmāniyyuttim | buchchham uvāṣiṁ gurujaṇeṇaṁ | āyariaparaṁparēṇa | āgayaṁ
āṇupuvvīē || 8 ||

niyyuttā tē atthā | jaṁ baddhā tēṇa hōi niyyuttī | taha vi aī chchhāvēi | vibhāsiṁ
suttaparivāḍi || 9 ||

There is no doubt that we have here the beginning of a work, [58] and that chapter 1 (which is itself called pīṭhikā, support, complement) did not yet precede these verses at the period of their origin.⁵³ From vv. 5 and 8 we learn that the author does not intend to write an introduction merely for this second chapter, but that his work is designed for all the āvaśyaka matter and especially the sāmāyam. The separate statements of his account show that he intended to carry his investigations into the first two āngas too, the fifth upāṅgaṁ, three chhēdasūtras, two more mūlasūtras,⁵⁴ and, if Haribhadra's explanation of isibhāsiāi is correct,⁵⁵ to pāinna 7 fgg.

If we compare these statements with those in the commentary of Rishimaṇḍalasūtra in Jacobi, Kalpas, p. 12, in reference to the ten niryuktis composed by Bhadrabāhu, it is manifest that they are identical (instead of kalakasya in the passage in Jacobi we must read kalpakasya), and that Bhadrabāhu must be regarded as the one who in our passage speaks in the first person. This conclusion, however, is not supported by the Théravādi in chap. 1, which, as we have seen, p. 7, is much later than Bhadrabāhu. Nevertheless, we have just above formed the opinion that this contradiction is immaterial, since this pīṭhikā is to be regarded as not extant at the time of the composition of chap. 2, [59] The greater is, however, the contradiction which is disclosed by other parts of the text, notably the first verse of the ūghaniryukti cited as 6, so, and chapter 8, etc. The statements made there refer to a period much later than that of Bhadrabāhu, the old bearer of this name, and who is assumed to be the last chaṭṭasapuvvi (+ Vīra 170). All these statements must either be regarded as alien to the original text, or the

⁴⁹ arthapīṭhutvaṁ.

⁵⁰ sūtrārthayōh parasparaṁ niryōjanam niryuktiḥ; — kim asēshasya śrutajñānasya? nō, kim tarhi? śrutaviśē-
shāṇam āvaśyakādīnam ity ata ēvā 'ha: āvassa'; — niryukti is perhaps an intentional variation of niryukti.

⁵¹ samudāyasabdānam avayavē vṛttidarśanād, yathā Bhīmasēna Sēna iti, uttarādhyā ity uttarādhyayanam
avasēyam.

⁵² dēvēndrastavādīnam.

⁵³ They are placed thus in a palmleaf MS., No. 23, in Peterson's *Det. Report* (1888) (only 1, 51 ābhiniḍōhiā . . .
see p. 56, precedes) at the beginning of a text entitled "niryuktayaḥ," which contains at least several, if not all,
of the above 10 niry.

⁵⁴ dasavāliyam is undoubtedly referred to under dasakāliyam. See the same denotation in v. 1 of the four
gāthās added there at the close. For the abbreviation see note 3 on p. 57 in reference to uttarajja.

⁵⁵ This is, however, extremely doubtful as regards the existing painnam called dēvēndrastava. See pp. 442,
259, 272, 280, 281, 402, 429, 431, 43.

person in question may be one of the *later* bearers of the name of Bhadrabâhu, to whom these ten Nirvyuktis might be referred. The further course of the account would then determine to what and to how late a period this Bhadr. belonged. All this is, however, on the supposition that we should have to assume that all the other chapters of the Nijjuttī were the work of but one hand! In this connection the distinction is of significance which Haribhadra — see above pp. 54, 55 — draws in reference to the separate constituent parts of the Nijj. The fourteenth chapter is expressly stated by him to have been composed by another author, *viz.* Jīṇabhadra. See my remarks on pp. 61, 62 in reference to the incorporation of the ōhanijjuttī. The result is that chap. 14 and several other chapters (9, 11, 12, 20) exist in a detached form in the MSS., without any connection with āv. nijj. At any rate the statements made in the text remain of extreme interest since they show the interconnection of the ten nirvyuktis mentioned in the text, and their relation to one author. A good part of these nirvy. appears to be still extant. [60] As regards the MS. of the nirvyuktayaḥ, mentioned above p. 58ⁿ, we must confess that Peterson's account does not make it clear in which of the above ten texts it is contained. On the āchāranirvyukti see p. 258, Peterson, Palm-leaf 62, Kielhorn's Report (1881) p. 10; on a sūyagaḍanijj. see Pet. Palm-leaf, 59, a dasavāḍhanijj. *ib.* 167. We have also citations from the nijj. in up. 5 and mūlas. 1.

What follows is very interesting:—

attham bhāsā arahā | suttam gaṇṭhamti gaṇaharā niṇṇam | sāsaṇassa (°ṇasa!) hi atthā |
taḍ suttam pavattā || 13 ||

sāmāia-m-āiam | suanāṇam jāva biṇḍusārāḍ | tassa vi sārō charaṇam | sārō charaṇassa
nivvāṇam || 14 ||

Here the *contents* of the doctrine is referred back to Arahan, but the *composition* of its textual form is ascribed to the gaṇaharas. See pp. 216, 345, above p. 35 and p. 80. The word sāmāiam, which we have found in v. 8 used as the title of the first āvaśyaka, is now used in its other signification, *i. e.* as the title of āṅga 1; for biṇḍusāra is the title of the first pūrva book in the ditthivāa, āṅga 12. See above pp. 243, 244.

3. *bīa varachariā*, 349 (also P π , 359 B) vv., of like contents.⁵⁶ It begins Vīram Aritthānēmim Pāsam Mallim cha Vāsupujjam cha | ēē muttūṇa Jīṇē avasēsā āsi rāyāṇō || . . . Despite its seeming exactness, its statements give the impression of being apocryphal. Verses 287 (297) fg. treat of Siddhattha and Tisālā,⁵⁷ the fourteen dreams of Tis., etc.

[61] 4. *uvassaggā*, 69 (70 P π) vv., treats especially of Vīra.⁵⁸ The statements made here in chapter 4 take almost no notice at all of the facts in reference to the life of Vīra that are found here and there in the āṅgas; nor does the Kalpasūtram (see p. 474) devote a greater amount of attention to this subject.

5. *samavasaranam*, 69 (64 P) vv., as above.

6. *gaṇaharavāḍ*, 88 (33 P, 90 B) vv. (is wanting in π); the history of the 11 pupils of Vīra: Īṇḍabhūti 1, Aggibhūti 2, Vāubhūti 3, Viatta 4, Suhamma 5, Maṇḍia 6, Mōriaputta 7, Akāmpia 8, Ayalabhāyā 9, Mēajja 10, Pabbhāsa 11 (see Hēmach. vv. 31, 32); tittham cha Suhammāḍ, niravachchā gaṇaharā sēsā (v. 5). The contents is as above, and almost no reference is paid to the account in the āṅgas. It concludes with the statement (above p. 48): sāmāyāri tivihā: ōhē dasahā padavibhāgē || 88 ||; in B there follows, as if belonging to this chapter, as v. 89 the beginning verse of the ōghanirvyukti, and thereupon the statement ittha 'ntarē ōhanijjuttī bhāṇiyavvā. In A v. 89 appears as v. 1 at the beginning of chap. 7 and then follows in partial Sanskrit: atthau⁵⁹ 'ghanirvyuktir vaktavyā; after this verse 1 of chap. 7 according to the new computation. There is probably an interpolation here. Since chap. 7 treats

⁵⁶ Jina 6 is called Paṇḍābha (v. 33), Jina 8 Sasippaha (v. 34), Jina 19 Malli appears as a maso. (Mallisa v. 30).

⁵⁷ On Dēvānamāḍ see v. 279 (283); but Usabhadatta is not mentioned. We read Sōmilābhīdhānō in the scholiast.

⁵⁸ Gōsāla v. 15 fg.

⁵⁹ artha instead of atra.

of the second of the three sāmāchāris enumerated in G, 33, and the first receives no mention, it was necessary to remedy this defect. The third sāmāchāri is, according to the statements of the scholiast here and elsewhere, pp. 357, 449, represented by the two chhōdasūtras : kalpa and vyavahāra. It is very probable that the interpolation is not merely one of secondary origin, but an interpolation inserted by the author himself. [62] If this is so, he deemed the ōhanijjuttī which he had before him (perhaps his own production) to be the best expression of the first form of the 3 sāmāchāris, and consequently, not taking the trouble to compose a new one, incorporated⁶⁰ *brevi manu* this ōhanijj. (cf. above p. 59), or rather referred to it merely by the citation of its introductory verse. A complete incorporation brought with it no little difficulty, because of the extent of the text in question.⁶¹ The economy of the whole work would have lost considerably if the entire text had been inserted. The text which we possess under this name and of which the first verse alone is cited here, consists of 1160 Prākṛit gāthās.⁶² I shall refer to it later on, and call attention for the present to what I have said on p. 357^{a2} : — that the first verse cited here from it, in that it mentions the dasapuvvi, excludes any possibility of that Bhadrabāhusvāmin, whom tradition calls the author of the ōghaniryukti, having been the first bearer of this name, who is stated to have been the last chaūddasapuvvi. The same, of course, holds good *a fortiori* of the author of our text, in which this verse is quoted.

7. dasavihasāmāyāri, 64 (P π, 65 B) vv.; cf. uttarajjh. 26; the enumeration here in chapter 7 is as follows (see above p. 48) : ichchhā, micchhā, tahakkārō, āvassā nīlhiā, āpuchchhānā ya [63] paḍipuchchhā chhamādanā ya nimaṁtanā || 1 || uvassānpayā ya kālē sāmāyāri bhavē dasavihā u | ēēsim tu payāpam pattā parūvaṇam buchchham || 2 ||

8. uvagghāyanijjuttī, 211 (214 B, 216 P, 210 π) vv. In vv. 40-50 glorification of Ajja-Vayarā (plur. maj.), °Vairā, Vajrasvāmin. who extracted⁶³ the āgāsagunā vijjā from the mahāpāinnā (see p. 251) and made ample use of the latter. In his time there still existed (p. 247) apuhattē kālāpūṇassa, apṛithaktvaṁ kalikānuyōgasya, but after him (tēṇā °rēṇa, tatu ārataḥ, Haribh.), i. e. perhaps *through* him there came into existence puhattam kālīasua ditthivā a,⁶⁴ pṛithaktvaṁ kālīkaśrutē drisṭivādē cha (v. 40). Tumbavāṇa, Ujjēṇī, Dasapura, nayaram Kusumanāmē (Pāṭaliputra) appear in regular order as exercising an important influence upon his life. In vv. 50—53 glorification of his successor Rakkhiajjā (plur. maj.), Rakkhiaḥkhamma, i. c. of Ārya Rakshitasvāmin, son of Sōmadēva and Ruddasōmā, (elder) brother of Phagurakkhia and pupil of Tōsaliputta. These two names : Vajrasvāmin and Āryarakshita (cf. Hēmachandra's pariśiṣṭap. chaps. 12, 13), especially as they are regarded here as persons deserving of great honor, bring us to a period much later than the *old* Bhadrabāhusvāmin. According to the statements of the modern Thērāvalī (see Klatt, l. c. pp. 246b, 247a,) 252^a, his death is placed Vira 17J, but that of Vajra, 400 years later, Vira 584.⁶⁵ We will find below that [64] there is mentioned here another date later by several years. Hēm. v. 34 too says that Vajra is the last “dasapūvin,” one who still has knowledge of 10 of the 14 pūrvas, and in general that he is regarded as deserving great honour as regards the transmission of the sacred texts. See the account of Dharmaghōṣa on the Kupakshakaśik., Kup. p. 21 (811). The two-fold division into kālīasua and ditthivāa (also in the Anuyōgadv. above, pp. 36, 40), dating back as far as Vajra according to v. 40, is in contrast to a no less peculiar division into four parts, referred back in v. 54 fg. to Ārya Rakshita : kālīasuaṁ cha isibhāsiyāim taṭṭa sūrajan-

⁶⁰ In the Vidhiprapā (in v. 7 des jōgavihāṇa) the ōhanijjuttī is said to be “ōinnā,” avatīrṇā into the āvassayam

⁶¹ Haribh. says : sāmpratam oghaniryuktir vāchyā, sā cha prapamānitatvāt (perhaps on account of its fulness) na vivriyatē; and likewise at the end : idānīm padavibhāgasāmāchāryāḥ prastāvah, sā cha kalpavyavahārarūpā bahuvistārā svasthānād avasēyā; ity uktah sāmāchāryupakramakālah.

⁶² The ōghaniryukti, which in P π is actually incorporated with the text, has but 58 (or 79 π) verses. See below, p. 82.

⁶³ But according to the Gaṇadharasārdhasāta, v. 29, it was taken from the sumahāpāinnapuvvāu ! see p. 479.

⁶⁴ In v. 36 there was mention of 700 (!) or 500 nayas, ēēsim (v. 37) ditthivāē parūvaṇā suttaatthakahaṇā ya : each of the 7 etc. nayas — see p. 350 ff. and p. 39 — śātaavidhah.

⁶⁵ See also Kupakshak. p. 21 (811)^a.

nattī | savvô a ditthivâô chaûtthasô hōi apuôgô || 54 || jañ cha mahâkappasuum jāni a sēsāpi chhēasuttāni | charanakaranānūga tti kālīatthô uvagayāni || 55 || Here then the isibhāsīyāim (which Har. explains here by uttarādhyayanādini! see above pp. 43, 58) and upānga 5 are enumerated as members holding equal rank⁶⁶ with the kaliasuum, i. e. aṅgas 1—11, and the ditthivāa, i. e. aṅga 12. Although the “mahâkappasuum” and “the other chhēdasūtras” (kalpādini, scholiasts) are said to have been borrowed from aṅga 12, they are akin (or rishibhāshita) to the kaliasua, i. e. aṅgas 1 to 11. Such is apparently Haribh.’s conception of the passage.⁶⁷

[65] In this text we notice that the different sections are frequently joined together without any break; and such is the case here. In vv. 56 to 96 we find very detailed statements in reference to the seven *ninhagas*, *nihnavaś*, *schisms*.⁶⁸ After an enumeration (v. 56) of the names there follows a list of their founders, the place of their origin (v. 59), the date of their foundation (vv. 60, 61), and then a more exact list of all in regular order, though in a most brief and hence obscure fashion, the catch-words alone being cited. The *kathānakas* etc. adduced in the scholiast, help us but little to clear up this obscurity. The first two schisms occurred during the life of Vīra, the first (vv. 62, 63), the Bahuraya, bahurata, under Jamli in Sāvattī in the fourteenth year after he obtained knowledge (Jiṇṇa uppādiassa nāpassa), — the second (vv. 64, 65), the Jivapaēsiya, under Tisagutta (chaūdasapuvvi) in Usabhapura in the sixteenth year thereafter. The third schism (vv. 66, 67), the Avvattaga, avyaktaka, under Āsāḍha in Sābiā (Svētavikā), in the 214th year after the end of Vīra’s death (siddhiñ gayassa Vīrassa). They were “brought back to the right faith” (Jacobi, *Kalpas*. p. 9) by the Muria (Maurya) Balabhadda in Rāyagiha. The fourth schism (vv. 68, 69), the Sāmucchhēa or ‘ochchhēa under Asamitta (Āśva⁶⁹) in Mihilapura (Mithilā) is placed in the year 220 after Vīra.⁶⁹ The fifth (vv. 70, 71), [66] the Dōkiriya, under Gaṅga in Ullamatīra (P A, Ullaga B, Ullaga scholiast, Ullukā in Skr.) in the year 228. The sixth, the Tērāsia, trairāsika, under Chhaluga in Āntaramjīā, in the year 544, is treated of at greater length (vv. 72—87), though in a very obscure fashion. We have already seen (p. 351) that aṅga 12, according to the account of aṅga 4 and Nandī, devoted considerable attention to those schisms. Finally, the thērāvālī of the Kalpasūtra (§ 6) contains several statements in reference to the Tērāsīyā sāhā and its founder Chhaluē Rōhaguttē Kōsiyagottē. The latter it calls the scholar of Mahāgiri, who, as in the thērāvālī of the Nandī, is called the ninth successor of Vīra. But this is not in harmony with the above-mentioned date (544 after Vīra), since it is equivalent to an allotment of 60 years to each patriarchate. There is then here, as in the case of the name of the founder of the fourth schism — see 351a, 381 — a considerable discrepancy in the accounts. The seventh schism, the Abaddhiā (vv. 88—91), under Goṭṭhāmāhila in Dasapura is referred to the year 584 and brought into connection with Ayya Rakkhiā, Pūsamitta and with the ninth puva (p. 356). The first of these statements harmonizes with the other information concerning Rakkhiā which we possess. See p. 63, Klatt p. 247b. The name Pūsamitta is frequently met with. According to Mērutuṅga’s *Vichārāsēṇi* (see Bühler, *ante*, 2, 362, and Jacobi, *Kalpas*. p. 7), there reigned a Pūsamitta, successor of the Maurya (the Pushyamitra of the *Mahābhāshyu*, etc.!), in the years 323—353 after Vīra. Neither can he be the one referred to here, nor the Pūsamitta who was

⁶⁶ The terminology in the Nandī — see above p. 11 — is quite different. There the kālīam suah, together with the ukkālīam, as a subdivision of the anāṅgapavīṭha texts, is opposed to the duvālassaṅga gaṇip; the isibhāsīyāim, together with the sūrap, are regarded as parts of the kālīyam. In reference to the use of the word in Anuy. see above, p. 36 n 2.

⁶⁷ upalakshaṇāt kālīkaśrutāni charanakaranānūyogah, rishibhāshitāni dharmakathānūyoga iti gamyatē; sarvas cha drishṭivādnā chaturthō bhavaty anyūyogah, dravyānūyoga iti; tatra rishibhāshitāni dharmakathānūyoga ity uktam, tatas cha mahākālpaśrutādīni rishibhāshitam tvā (tatvāt?) drishṭivāddā uddhṛitya teshān pratipāditatvāt, dharmakathānūyogavvā (P tvāch cha P) prasaṅga ity atas tadapōhadvārachikīrṣhayā “ha: jañ cha . . (v. 55). See p. 258.

⁶⁸ See above, pp. 275, 381 on aṅga 8 and upānga 1. Further information is found in the second chhēdasūtra (see p. 463) and in the scholiast on uttarajjh. 3, 9.

⁶⁹ Abhayadēva on up. 1 mentions Pushyamitra instead of Āsamitta. See p. 381. Is this merely a *lapsus calami*?

the founder of the Pûsamittijjam kulañ of Châraṇagaṇa in § 7 of the thêrâvâñ of the Kalpas., which emanated from Sirigutta, the pupil of the tenth [67] patriarch Suhatti. The name Pûsamitta occurs here too in chap. 17 (16), 190 (see p. 74^m), as that of a contemporary of king Muḍimbaga and of Ayya Pussabhûi. Abhayadôva on up. 1 mentions him as the founder of the fourth schism. See p. 65ⁿ.

In addition to these seven schisms there was an eighth (vv. 92—95), that of the Bôḍia, Pauṭika, according to Haribh., under Sivabhûi in Rahavirapura (Ratha^c) in the year 609. According to the account in Dharmaghôsha's scholiast on his Kupakshakaś., the Diganbaras are referred to; see Kup. p. 6 (796) where I have attempted to shew that the name Bôḍia has the same meaning (naked) as digambara. The animosity against the Bôtikas is as keen as can possibly be imagined. In the 22nd chapter of the Vichârâmrîtasaṃgraha, the remaining 7 niṇavas are said, according to Malayagiri's commentary on the Âvaśy., to be dêsavisamvâdinô dravyalimḡenâ 'bhêdinô, but the Bôtika: sarvavisamvâdinô dravyalimḡatô 'pi bhinnâs. Similarly Haribh. on v. 92 (dêsavi^c and prabhûtavi^c); see also Jacobi, Kalpas. p. 15ⁿ. In the kâlasattarî, v. 40, they appear as khamanâ pâsamdiyâ; also in Kup. 1, 37, 71, 2, 3; *ibid.* 1, 8, or as khavanaya. i. e. kshapanaka. See below, p. 75.

In contradistinction to these heterodox opinions (michhâditthi) we have the praises of the sâmañam sung in v. 102 fg. We find it called⁷⁰ (v. 108) an "ajjhayanam" as opposed to the "remaining (five) ajjhayanâs;" and the two verses closing with the refrain ii kôvalibhâsiam [68] are cited in reference to it. These verses recur in the Anuyôgadvârasûtra (see above, pp. 37, 38) as I have shewn on Bhagav. 2, 136. After the conclusion of the upôdghâtaniryukti we find in the scholiast (see above p. 55) the following statement: atra sûtrasparśikaniryukty (see p. 38)-avasaraḥ, sâ cha prâptâvasarâ 'pi nô 'chyatê, yasmâd asati sûtrê kasyâ 'sâv iti; to which is joined an elaborate deduction in reference to sutta and niryukti.

9. namukkaranijjuttî, 139 (P, 144 B) vv. Towards the end we find the verse êsô pañcha^c (132), glorifying the pañchanamukkâra, a verse we have already met with in upaṅga 4; see p. 393. In the last pâda we have here the reading haviṃ maṃgalaṃ; see Kup. p. 21 (811) fg., where this form of the verse is referred directly back to śrî-Vajrasvâmin. See p. 38ⁿ.³ on v. 6^b. A detached copy is found in Peterson, Palm-leaf No. 77^b.

10. sâmañanijjuttî, 100 (P, 111 P, 112 B) vv. Begins: namdi-anuôgadâraṃ vihiyaḍ uvagghaiaṃ cha kâṭṇaṃ | kâṭṇa pañchamaṃgala-m ârambhô hoi suttassa || 1 || The knowledge of the namdi and of the anuôgad.⁷¹ is here regarded as a preliminary condition for the understanding of the sûtra. This citation is both *per se* of interest (see p. 3), and also because from it we can prove that the Âvaśyaka texts quoted in these two works are to be distinguished from our âv. nijj. — though this was tolerably self-evident after the remarks on p. 53 ff. The text continues:

ahavâ (!): kayapañchanamukkârô karêi sâmañam ti sô bhihiô | sâmañamgam êva ya jam sô sêsam aô buchchham [69] || 2 || sûtram (atra 'mtarê sûtram vâchyaṃ B). On this Har. (see between 8 and 9): atrâ 'mtarê sûtrasparśaniryuktir uchyatê, svasthânatvâd, âha cha niryuktikâraḥ: akkhaliya (v. 3) tti,⁷² gâhâ. We have here then a very incomplete quotation of the text, see above p. 55. — In vv. 30—38 there are special statements in reference to the 11 karaṇas, the fourth of which is here called thivillôyaṇam. See p. 414. In v. 40 we find a division of the suam into baddham and abaddham. The former is explained by duvâlasamgam and called nisiam and anisiam (see pp. 452, 553); the nisiam is explained as pachannam, and the following added in illustration: — nisiam nâma jaha 'jjhayanam (v. 41). In verse 42 we

⁷⁰ ajjhayanam pi a tiviam | suttê atthô tad-ubhâdê chêva | sêsêsu vi ajjhayanêsu (chaturviñsatitavâdisu) hoi têsê 'va nijjuttî (uddêsanirddêśâdikâ niruktiparyavasânâ).

⁷¹ namdiê cha anyôgadvârâpi cha Haribh.

⁷² akkhaliyasamhiâl vakkhânaohakkâsê darisiammi | suttapphâsianijjuttivitharattô imô hoi || schol. tatâ 'skhalitapadôchchâraṇam samhitâ, sthavâ parah samnikaraha samhitâ (a fine Brahminical reminiscence)'. padam, samhitâ, padârtha, padavigraha. châlanâ, pratyavasthânam (see above p. 38) are here referred to.

find a citation from *pūrva* 2 — see above p. 354 — in immediate conjunction with the foregoing.

11. *chaūvisatthai*, 62 (61 BP) vv., second *ajjhayaṇaṃ* in *Haribh.* Stands alone in Peterson's Palm-leaf 77°.

12. *vaṃdaṇanijjutti*, 191 (189 π B, 190 P) vv., equivalent to the third *ajjh.* of *Har.* Stands alone in Peterson's Palm-leaf No. 77^a. From v. 36 on there is a dialogue between *guru* and *chô*, *chôdaka*, see above p. 34. After v. 176 we read in the text : *atra sūtraṃ*, and *Har.* quotes a text which begins with the words *ichhāmi khamāsamaṇē vaṃdiṇiṃ*.

13. *paḍikkamaṇanijjutti*, 54 (52 PB, 51 π) vv. Chap. 13—18, which correspond to the fourth *ajjh.* of *Haribh.*, presuppose a [70] *pratikramaṇasūtraṃ*,⁷³ given by him in full in sections. These chapters form a species of running commentary to each of the sections of the *pratik.* Chap. 14, 15 take up one section each, chap. 17 two, chap. 13, 16 contain the explanation of several sections. The sections explained in chap. 13 read : — *paḍikkamāmi āgavihē asaṃjamē . . , p. dōhiṃ baṃdhaṇēhiṃ, p. tihīṃ daṃdēhiṃ, p. chaūhiṃ jjhāṇēhiṃ*. The entire following chapter is an explanation of the latter sentence. In π a *dhammajjhāṇaṃ* of 69 vv. precedes these sections commented upon in chapter 13.

14. *jhānasayaṃ, dhyānasatakaṃ*, 106 vv. The last verse (106) which is omitted by *Haribh.* mentions only 105 vv., and states that *Jiṇabadda* is the author of this cento⁷⁴ : *paṃchuttarāṇa, gāhā-sāḍha jjhānasayaṃ samuddiṭṭhaṃ | Jiṇabaddakhamāsamaṇēhi kammaśōhikaraṃ jainō || 106 ||*. It had originally, as at present (see Peterson's Palm-leaf 77^a 161^b), a quite independent position and was later on inserted here. This is clear from the fact that the beginning contains a special salutation, which is usual only in the case of independent texts : — *Viraṃ sukkajjhāṇag-gidaddhakammimdhanaṃ paṇamiṭṭhaṃ | jōtsaraṃ sarannaṃ, jhānajjhayaṇaṃ pavakkhāmi || 1 ||* *Haribh.* cites this *dhyānasatakaṃ* just as he usually cites his [71] *kathānaka* : *ayaṃ dhyānasamāsārthaḥ, vyāsārthaḥ tu dhyānasatakād avasēyaḥ, tach chē 'dām dhyānasatakaṃ asya mahārthatvād vastunaḥ śāstrāntaratvāt (! this is plain; we should have expected 'tvāch cha) prārāmbha ēva vighnavināyakōpaśāntayē maṅgalārtham ishtādevatānamaskāraṃ āha : Viraṃ . .* The explanation concludes (omitting verse 106) with the words : — *samāptaṃ dhyānasatakāṃ*, and the commentator proceeds with his explanation of the *pratikramaṇasūtraṃ* : *paḍikkamāmi paṃchahiṃ kiriyāhiṃ*, again having recourse thereby to the *pāriṭṭhāvaṇiyaniiyutti*.

15. *pāriṭṭhavaṇi*, 151 (152 P, 153 π B) vv. Begins : *pāriṭṭhāvaṇiavihiṃ | buchhāmi dhīrapurisaṇṇattaṃ | jaṃ nāṭṭa suvihiṃ pavayanasāraṃ uvalahaṃti || 1 ||* This chapter, too, gives me the impression of having originally enjoyed a separate existence. Nevertheless it is closely connected with chapter 18, since they both share this form of introduction. It is also noticeable that the same verse recurs with tolerable similarity in 20, 9 ; from which we may conclude that chapters 16, 18, 20 were composed by one author. *Haribh.* in this chapter omits or leaves a large number of verses unexplained ; and beginning with v. 79. His commentary is partially composed in *Prākṛit*, probably taken from the old *bhāṣya* (see p. 52). After the conclusion : — *paristhāpanikā samāptā*, he proceeds to cite and explain the *sūtraṃ* : *paḍikkamāmi chhahim jīvaṇikāhiṃ*. In π there is an additional chapter *lēsāō*, with 13 vv., inserted between the conclusion and explanation.

16. *paḍikkamaṇasaṃghayaṇi, pratikramaṇasaṃgrahaṇi*, 133 (80 P π B) vv. The verses, which are not found in [72] B,⁷⁵ are cited in full by *Haribh.* as a part of his commentary.⁷⁶

⁷³ It begins *ichhāmi paḍikkaminiṃ . .* ; it is in prose and different from the *śrāddha-* or *śrāvaka-pratikramaṇasūtra*, whose 50 *gāthās*, divided into 5 *adhikāras*, were commented in *Saṃvat* 1496 (A. D. 1440) by *Ratnasēkhara* from the *Tapāgnahha* (No. 52 in *Klatt*). In Peterson's Palm-leaf MSS. there are two other similar texts, a *pratikramaṇasūtraṃ* 86°, 88° (where it is called *atichāraprat*°) and a *pratikramaṇaṃ* 154^a (see p. 125b), which is different from the first.

⁷⁴ He appears in *Ratnasēkhara* as the author of a *viśēṣhāvaśyaka*. See preceding note.

⁷⁵ *Pr* also presumably do not contain the verses : A 18-30, 32-43, 50-64, 68-80.

⁷⁶ On one occasion he calls these verses (vv. 50—64) *niryuktigāthās* of the *sūtrakṛit* (!), by which the *sūtrakṛit* (!), is said to explain the two preceding verses (48, 49) of the *saṃgrahaṇikāra* ! See above p. 54^a 3.

The verses which A B have in common, are cited by him here, not as verses of the *niryuktikṛit*, but as a part of the *saṃgrahanikāra*. In these chapters we find explanations and enumerations of the contents of sections 6—31 of the *pratikramanāsūtram*. Each group of verses is explained under its proper section. Chapters 14 and 15, however, belong to but one section. The following is treated of: 6 *jīvanikā*, 7 *bhayaṭṭhāṇa* (v. 14), 8 *mayatṭhāṇa* (v. 14^b), 9 *bambha-chêragutti* (v. 15), the 10-fold *samaṇadhamma* (v. 16), 11 *uvāsagapaḍimā* (v. 17), 12 *bhikkhu-paḍimā* (v. 31), 13 *kiriyaṭṭhāṇa* (v. 44), 14 *bhūyagāma* (v. 45), 15 *paramāhammā* (vv. 48, 49), 16 *gāhāsōlāsa* (vv. 65, 66), the 17-fold *saṃjama* (v. 67), the 18-fold *abambha* (v. 81), 19 *nāyaj-jhayaṇa* (vv. 82, 83), 20 *asamāhiṭṭhāṇa* (vv. 84—86), 21 *sabala* (*śabala* v. 87),⁷⁷ 22 *parisaha* (v. 100), 23 *suttagaḍajjhayaṇa* (v. 102), 24 *dēva* (v. 103), 25 *bhāvaṇa* (v. 104), 26 *dasā-kappa-varahārāṇa uddēsanakāla* (v. 109), the 27-fold *anagāracharitta* (v. 110), the 28-fold *āyārapakappa* (v. 112), 29 *pāvasutapasaṃga* (v. 115), 30 *mōhaniyyaṭṭhāṇa* (v. 117) and 31 *siddhāigūṇa* (v. 132). We find herein enumerations of the 23 chapters of *aṅga* 2 (in two groups, one of 16, the other of 7; [73] see above p. 260), of the 19 chapters of the first part of *aṅga* 6, of the 26 chapters of the three *chhēdasūtras* 3—5, and of the 28 chapters of *aṅga* 1.

17. *jōgasamgaha-āsāyaṇa*, °*āsātana*; 64 vv.; in A counted continuously in conjunction with chapter 16, i.e. as vv. 134—197. In P_πB, however, it is divided into two chapters: *jōgasamgaha* of 60, and *āsāyaṇa* of 5 (4 π) vv. It contains the vouchers for and examples (*udāharana-gāthā*) of the 32 *jōgasamgahas* (to v. 193) and 33 *āsāyaṇas*,⁷⁸ °*āsātanas* (v. 194—197), which are mentioned in the last two sections of the *pratikramanāsūtram*. The *pratikramanāsamgrahaṇi* (*pr°ṇi samāptā*) ended here according to Haribh. But with the words *sāṃpratam sūtrōktā ēva trayastriṃśad vyākhyāyāntē* . . . Haribh. comes back to the explanation of v. 197. These verses contain principally matters of legendary and historical purport, and consist chiefly of proper names and of some catch-words. Haribhadra cites very detailed *kathānakas* on them composed in *Prākṛit*, from which the meaning of the verses is to be extracted (*svabuddhyā 'vasēyah*); but he does not enter upon the explanation of the text of each of the verses, or even of the *kathānakas* cited by him. It is very interesting that *Thūlabhadda* is here brought into connection with the (ninth, Haribh.) *Nanda*, and with *Sagaḍāla* and *Vararuchi* (v. 144, cf. the statements in *Hēmach.*'s *pariśiṣṭaparvan* 8, s. g.). The same may be said of the mention of *Sālavāvāhaṇa* in *Paṭṭhāṇa* (v. 164; *Vikramāditya* is, however, not noticed), and of the identification, in all essentials, of all these and similar [74] names⁷⁹ with the names of king *Dummuha* of *Paṃchāla*, of *Namī* of *Vidēha*, *Naggai* of *Gaṇḍhāra* (v. 172), and with the *Paṃḍavavamsa* (v. 161)! As far as the legends admit of being comprehended (which is no easy matter, if we take into consideration the enigmatical character of the text and the corrupt condition of the MS. of the commentary), they are in only partial agreement with our information in respect to these persons obtained from Brahminical sources. The information they convey, is quite independent of any other source, and is probably the result of their arbitrary desire for change. It is of interest that the *gāthā* (v. 188), cited pp. 158, 159, which is quite in keeping with the character of the verses of *Hāla*, is here inserted in the legend of two prostitutes (*Magahasundarī* and *Magahasirī*).

18. *asajjhāyaniijuttī, asvādhyāyika*°, 111 (P_π, 110 B) vv. Begins⁸⁰: *asajjhāyaniijuttim buchehhāmi dhīrapurisapannattam | jam nāṭṭa suvihiā pavayanasāram uvalabhamti || asajjhāyam tu duviham āyasamuttham cha parasamuttham cha | jam tattha parasamuttham tam paṃ-*

⁷⁷ On vv. 87—96 we read here: *āsām vyākhyā . . . āyam cha samāsārthab. vyāsārthas tu dasākhyāḍ grāṇthāntarād avas'ya ēva* (ēva), *asammōhārtham dasānusārēna sabalasvarūpam abhihitam, saṃgrahanikāras tu ēva āha: varisaṃ* (v. 97). The fourth *chhēdasūtram* (or its second book, see p. 468) is meant by the *dasākhyā grāṇtha* mentioned here.

⁷⁸ Explained by *īyah* (!) *samyagdarśanādyavāptilakṣaṇas, tasyā sātanāḥ khamḍanā āsātanas . . .*; as if the word was *āyasāyaṇa* (or *āyā°*?).

⁷⁹ As for example *Vijā* in *Bharuachha* v. 189, *Muḍḍibaga*, *Ajja Pussabhūti*, *Pūsamitta* in *Sambavaddhāna* v. 190.

⁸⁰ Verse 1 is omitted by Haribh.

chaviham tu nāyavvaṃ || 2 || Closes : asajjhānījuttī kahiā bhē dhīrapurisapannattā | saṃjama-tavaḍḍhagāṇaṃ | niggaṃthāṇaṃ mahārisiṇaṃ || 10 || This chapter, too, appears to have originally existed by itself (see above p. 71, on chapter 15). It refers to certain faults in the study and recitation of the śrutam, which are enumerated at the conclusion of the 33 āśayaṇās; but special reference is made to the cases in which akālē kaḍ sajjhāḍ, etc. The pratikramapaśūtram consequently is joined on in Haribh. as follows: nama chaūvisāḥ tithayarāṇaṃ Usabhāi-Māhavīrapayyavasāṇaṃ, . . . inam ēva niggaṃthaṃ pāvayaṇaṃ savvaṃ aṇuttaram ity-ādi, . . . ṇṣāvaṃ (naiyāyikam) [75] ti saṃsuddhaṃ ti, sallakattaṇaṃ ti, siddhimaggaṃ muttimaggaṃ nejjāmaggaṃ nevvāṇamaggaṃ ti, icchāmi paḍikkaminuṃ gōyara-chariyāḥ ity-ādi.

19. kaussagganījī, 172 vv., fifth ajjh. in Har.

20. pachchakkhānījuttī corresponds to the sixth ajjh. in Haribh., and consist of three parts: — 1. A metrical section in 22 (26 B) vv., with an enumeration of the 5 mūlaguṇas,⁸¹ 2. A prose portion treating of the 12 vrata (5 anuvr., 3 guṇavr., 4 śikshāpadvr.). Haribhadra calls its sections sūtram; this is doubtless to be regarded as a bit of the sūtram, which is presupposed in the other chapters, but not directly admitted into the text of the Nijj. 3. A metrical conclusion of 74 (70 B) vv., which closes with the same two verses as chapter 10. There are 194 vv. verses in all given in P, but in π only 90. It stands alone in Peterson's Palm-leaf 77° (without statement as to the number of verses) and 86s (94 vv.). — The prose part (nominative in § 1) is directed with great vigour against the annaūtthiyas (anyatīrthika) and against the parapāsaṃdāpasamsās, or the parapāsaṃdāsamthavas. According to Haribhadra, the Brahminical sects⁸² Bhautika and Vōtika (Digambara, see above p. 67) are treated of under annaū°. The 363 doctrines attacked in aṅga 2 are referred to under parapāsaṃdā. See p. 259.⁸³ According to H. there is no mention here of the seven schisms. [76] He mentions also a legend (in Prakṛit) of Chāṇakka and Chāṇdagutta in Pāḍaliputta. Cf. Hēmach. parīś. chap. 8 and 9).

Besides the Nijjuttī I possess a fragment of a second metrical treatment of the āvśyaka, which is, however, confined to vaṃdāṇa and pachchakkhāṇa. The former is divided into two sections, chaityavaṃdana and guru°. The text is only partially based upon the Nijjuttī. There is an avachūri (°chūrṇi) to it from the commentary of a Sōmasuṃdara (from the Chandragachha). This avachūri can be traced back to a Jñānasāgara.

[77] XLV. The third mūlasūtram, dasavēśīasuaḥkhaṃdha, dasavaikālika, or merely: dasaālika,⁸⁴ dasakālika. It consists of ten ajjhayaṇas, which are composed in ślōkas, with the exception of a few prose sections. There are furthermore two chapters called chūlā (and hence

⁸¹ pāṇivaha musāvāḥ adatta mēhuṇa pariggahē chēva. || 8 || sāvaṃyadhamassa vihiṃ buchhohāmi dhīrapu-risapannattam | jaṃ chārītṭa suvihiā giniṇō vi suhāim pāvanti || 9 || On this verse see p. 71 on chap. 15.

⁸² anyatīrthikaparigṛhītāni vā chaityāni arhatpratimālakṣhaṇāni, yathā Bhautaparigṛhītāni Vīrabhadra-Mahā-kālādīni, Vōtika-parigṛhītāni vā.

⁸³ Dr. Leumann called my attention to the fact that a letter of Schiefner to me dated Dec. 1857 — see *Ind-Stud.* 4, 395 — contains the following statement extracted from the introduction of a Thibetan work edited by Wassiljew: "there are 363 different schisms in the religion of India." Since I found nothing of the kind in the introduction of Tāranātha, which was doubtless referred to here, I had recourse to Wassiljew himself. On the 8th of October 1883, I received from him the following kind reply: — "I cannot inform you definitely in which of my works 363 Indian schools are mentioned, if at all; but it is certain that this number is frequently mentioned in Thibetan works. In Djandja Vatuktu's Siddhānta, which I have at present before me, I find the following: 'In the sūtras are mentioned 96 darsana papantika[F], 14 dijakṛita muluni[F], 62 injurious darsana, 28 which do not permit salvation, and 20 which are ruinous.' In Bhanja's work Tarkadīvala all the darsanas are enumerated in 110 species, 'viz. . .'. According to my hasty count there are more than 120 names, probably because the same school is mentioned twice, i. e. in Sanskrit and Thibetan. And at the end, after mention of all 110 (—120) species, we read: — in all 363 darsanas. As regards the names of these darsanas, it is too difficult for me to translate them into Russian and a fortiori into German, though, should you desire it, I will attempt it as best I may be able." I did not consider it necessary to have recourse again to Wassiljew's kindness, since, for the purpose in view, his communication was amply sufficient. It is clear from the above, compared with p. 259, that it will be difficult to expect complete agreement in detail; nevertheless the fact that the number of 363 darsanas is common to the Jains with the Thibetan Buddhists, is of great value.

⁸⁴ Thus in Āv. nijj. 2, 5, and in the Vidhiprapā.

secondary⁸⁵) of similar contents. These are in gāthās. After them follow four gāthās, in which Sijjambhava, according to the old thêrāvālī (Nandi, Kalpas.) the fourth patriarch after Mahāvīra, is stated to be the author;⁸⁶ but his son Ajja-Maṇaga and his pupil Jasabhadra⁸⁷ are mentioned in connection with him. This is indeed a claim of great antiquity for the author!

The contents refers to the viṇaya, and is clothed in a very ancient dress. That this is the case is proved by the close of a chapter: ti bēmi (also in the case of the two chūlās!) and by the introduction: suam mē āsam in the prose sections (with the exception of that in chūla 1.). The dasavēlīam, (see p. 11) is mentioned in the Nandī as being in the forefront of the ukkāliya group of the anāṅgapavitṭha texts; its position here, however, almost at the end, does not agree with the prominent place ascribed to it by N. It appears elsewhere as the last or smallest of the āgama (if I understand the words correctly; the preceding leaf is wanting in the Berlin MS. — see p. 214) in Hāmach. [78] in the parīśiṣṭap. 9, 99, and in the commentary on Nēmichandra's pravachanasāra, v. 1445, where Duḥprasaha, the last of the 2004 sūris which Nēmich. accepts, is designated as daśavaikālikamātrasūtradharō 'pi chaturdaśapūrvadhara iva śakra-pūjyaḥ. The author of the Āvaśy. nijj. asserts (2, 5) that he composed a nijjuttī on it. A MS. of a nijjuttī which recognizes the chūliya is found in Peterson's Palm-leaf 167. Is it the work referred to? The word vēlīam is said here to mean about the same as vaikālikam, "belonging to the evening" (vikālē 'parāhṇē).⁸⁸

1. dumaupphīḥ, drumapushpikā, 5 vv. Comparison of the dhamma with a flowering tree. Cf. aṅga 2, 2, 1. uttarajjh. chap. 10.

2. sīmannapuvva, śrāmaṇyapūrvikā, 11 vv. Of firmness, dhṛiti.

3. khuddīyārā, kshullikāchāra, 15 vv.; sā dhṛitir āchārē vidhēyā.

4. chajjivāṇiyajjh.,⁸⁹ shadḍivānikhādhy., i. e. doubtless 'nikāyajjh.; see above, pp. 71, 72. In two chapters, the first of which, in prose, begins suam mē . . and treats of the 6 grades of the four elements (earth, water, light, air), plants (vaṇasaḥ) and insects (tasa); and of the 5 mahavvayas to be observed in reference to them. To these five a sixth, the rāibhōṇāu verimāṇaṁ (command against eating at night), is added. Chapter 2, in 29 vv., treats of the six forms of activity (walking, standing, sitting, lying, eating, speaking) necessary for these 6 mahavv.

5. piṇḍēsaṇā, in 2 uddēsakas, with 100 and 50 vv., bhikṣhāsōdhiḥ, of the collection of the necessities of life and of rules for eating; see aṅga 1, 2, 1. To this is joined, [79] according to the Vidhiprapā, the piṇḍanijjuttī (mūlas. 4); ittha pi'ttī ōyaraḥ (dīpaḥ v. 7 of the jōgavihāna).

6. dharmārthakāmajjhayaṇaṁ, also mahāchārakathākhyaṁ; in 69 vv. — This trivarga (tivaggō also in the Abhidhānappadīpikā) which plays so important a rôle in epic literature (MBhār., Rāmāy. Manu) is not known to the Vēda. Among the Jains and Buddhists, by whom dharma and artha are often brought into connection, though in quite a different signification (artha sense, explanation), the trivarga does not claim any place whatsoever. It is probable that we must connect it with the three guṇas: sattva, rajas and tamas. But in that case artha would respond to rajas, kāmā to tamas, though kāmā suits rajas much better. Has the Platonic trinity καλόν, ἀφ'ελμον, ἡδὺ, which is Cicero's *honestum, utile, dulce*, wandered to India?

7. vakkasuddhi, vākyaśuddhi, 57 vv.

8. āyārapaṇiḥ, āchārapraṇidhi, 64 vv.

⁸⁵ This is evident from the title dasakāliam itself. At the time that the four gāthās were added at the end, these two chūlās had not yet been affixed, since the text in v. 1 is called, as one might expect from its title, merely dasajjhayaṇaṁ.

⁸⁶ According to v. 37 of the kālasattarī it was composed in the year 98 Vīra.

⁸⁷ These three names recur in the same connection in the thêrāv. of the Kalpas. Jasabhadra is also in the Nandī the fifth successor of Vīra.

⁸⁸ In aṅga 2 the word means vaidārikam; in paṇṇa 5 the meaning is not clear.

⁸⁹ dhammapannattī vā, in the Vidhiprapā.

9. vinayasamāhi, °samādhi, in 4 uddēśakas, of which the first three in metre, in 17, 23 and 15 vv., treat of the correct vinaya, especially in reference to the guru. The fourth is in prose with the introduction suam mē . . . and establishes four fixed categories of the correct vinaya.

10. sa bhikkhu-ajjhayaṇaṃ, in 21 vv. All the verses end, as in Uttarajjh. chap. 15, with the refrain sa bhikkhū, and consequently enumerate the requirements made of a correct bh., who desires to live in accordance with the regulations contained in the preceding 9 chapters.

11. raivakka chūlā paḍhamā, rativākya, in two sections. The first in prose, without the introduction suam [80] mē . . . enumerates 18 ṭhāpas which the bhikkhu must take and fulfil in order gradually to acquire mukkha. The second, in 18 vv., partly with the refrain : sa pachchhā paritappai, emphasizes especially the obstacles to this quest and serves sīdatēh sthīrikaraṇāya.

12. chūla 2 without any special title (also in the Vidhiprapā merely chūliya) in 16 vv., describes the correct course of action of the man of firmness.

The conclusion is formed by the 4 gāthās in reference to Sijjambhava, which have already been referred to. Those gāthās are probably of later date. The work is called in v. 1 dasakāliam (as in Āv. niḥj. 2, 5, and in the Vidhiprapā) and also dasajjhayaṇaṃ; so that verse 1 at least dates from a period in which the two chūlās had not been added (see p. 77ⁿ²).

The text is frequently doubtful in the two Berlin MSS. The commentary calls itself an avachūri of the vṛihadvṛitti of Haribhadrasūtri.⁹⁰ Another avachūri, in bhāṣhā, is the work of a Rājahanṣopādhyāya. A laghuvṛitti too is ascribed to Haribhadra. See p. 458.

FOLKTALES OF HINDUSTAN.

BY WILLIAM CROOKE, C.S.

No. 3.—*How Eve rescued the Prince.*¹

There was once a king, who dearly loved his queen, and she too loved him exceedingly. One day the king went to hunt, and met in the jungle a most beautiful woman. He fell in love with her and brought her home; soon she got his heart in her power, and one day she said "I will live with you only on this condition, that you get rid of your first queen." The king was grieved, but he was in her power, and he searched for a cause to discard the queen; but she was so good that he could find no fault in her.

One evening he challenged her to play chess and said, "This shall be the stake. If before the game is finished a jackal howls, I will take my new queen and leave my kingdom: but if a donkey brays, then you must go away." This was agreed on; before the game was over the jackal howled. The king said, "Lady, you have won. To-morrow I will make over my kingdom to you and depart." At this her heart was nearly broken, and, not wishing to distress her husband, she replied: "No, king, it was a donkey that brayed. I will leave early to-morrow." The king said, "No, it was a jackal that howled." On this they began to argue, and the king said, "Let us ask the sentry whether it was a jackal or a donkey."

So the queen went to the sentry and said:—"Was it the cry of a jackal or a donkey you heard just now?" "Mistress," he replied, "it was the howl of a jackal." The queen replied: "The king and I have sworn an oath about this. If you say it was a jackal, the king must leave his kingdom. How can I defend it against our enemies? Then all you people will be killed and your children will die of hunger. You must say it was a donkey that brayed." The sentry agreed, and the queen came back to the king and said: "The sentry says it was a donkey

⁹⁰ Ratnaśekhara (on Pratīkramanāsūtra) cites this vṛitti frequently; likewise the Vichārāmṛitasamgraha quotes e. g. the following verse from it (or from the niḥj. ?): titthayaratthāṇaṃ khalu atthō, suttāṃ tu gaṇaharatthāṇaṃ (see p. 60) | atthēva ya vaṃjijjā suttāṃ tamhā ya sō balavaṇ ||

¹ A folktale recorded by E. David, a Native Christian of Mirzāpur, from the lips of Maṭṭābō, a cook-woman, and literally translated.

that brayed." "You lie," said the king, "I will go and ask him myself." When the king asked the sentry he made the same answer. So the king came back and said to the queen:—"You must leave this to-morrow morning."

Next morning the queen went off in her litter and at last reached a jungle. Through excess of grief she had not slept a wink the whole night, and was so tired that she fell asleep in the litter. Then the bearers, seeing night coming and in dread of the wild animals, quietly put the litter on the ground and ran away. When the queen awoke, finding herself alone and hearing the roaring of the wild beasts, she trembled and closed the doors of the litter. As night advanced tigers, bears and wolves roared all round her, and she lay inside trembling with fear.

When morning broke all the beasts of the forest went back to their dens, and she got up and prayed to God to appoint her some place where she could live in quiet, and get bread and water for her support. The Lord heard her prayers, and when she got out of the litter she saw a house inside a dense thicket. Going there she found that it had only a single door, which was locked. Looking about she saw the key hanging on a peg. When she opened the door, she went in and found a lot of property lying scattered about. So she locked the door thinking "the house may belong to some demon (*déd*), and if he sees me he will kill me."

When evening came a *fagîr*, to whom the house belonged, arrived and found the door locked. He knocked and said: "Open the door. Who has dared to shut up my house?" The queen made no answer, and did not open the door. When he got tired of knocking, the *fagîr* said: "Whether you are a *jinn*, or a *pari*, or a *déd*, or a human being, open the door, and I won't hurt you." Then the queen told him the whole story and said: "Promise that we shall live as father and daughter; then I will open the door." So the *fagîr* made the promise and said: "I will give you half of all I get by begging." The queen then opened the door, the *fagîr* went in, and they lived there for some time happily.

Now when the queen left home she was with child, and after some time gave birth to a son, who was very beautiful. When the boy was three or four years old, one day the queen took him to bathe on the sea shore. As she was bathing him a merchant's ship appeared, and when the merchant saw the queen, he desired to take her with him. But she refused. Then the merchant secretly showed the boy some sweetmeats and the boy ran up to him. The merchant seized him and put him into the ship, and loosed it from the shore. Seeing this the queen wept violently and implored him to give back her son. The merchant said: "I will restore him only on condition that you come with me." When the queen saw that he would not restore the child and was taking him off, through affection for the boy she agreed to go; but when the merchant desired to take her to wife she refused. The merchant thought that if he killed the child she would marry him, so after going some distance he stopped the ship, and with a pretence of great affection took the boy with him and pitched him into a well. When he returned to the ship the queen asked where her child was; he said: "I don't know. I took him a short way with me, but he turned back to you, and now I can wait here no longer." The queen was sure he had killed her son, and began to weep and bewail.

Now the fairies lived in the well into which the little prince had been thrown. They took him up in their arms and carried him quietly to their house. For two or three days the boy was quite happy, but then he began to cry and wanted to go back to his mother. But the fairies warned him, — "Don't go there, for the merchant will kill you." But he would not mind them. Then the fairies gave him two sticks, one white and the other black, and said: "When you smell the black stick you will become white as a leper, and when again you smell the white one you will get all right. So when you see your mother's ship, smell the black stick. If you don't, the merchant will take your life."

The moment the young prince got out of the well he ran in the direction where the ship had gone. The merchant from a distance saw him through his telescope (!) and recognised him. Then he got off the ship, took a sword and cut off his head, and then went on board again.

When night fell the prince was so lovely that light streamed from his face. By chance that night Father Adam and Eve (*Bābā Adam, Hawwā*) were flying towards that jungle. Eve looked down, and when she saw the light that came from his face, she said to Adam: "What light is this? Let us go and see." Adam replied: "This is the world, and it is sometimes light and sometimes dark; come along." Eve said: "No! I must see this light." So they both flew down, and when she saw the boy, Eve took great pity on him, and cutting her finger let a couple of drops of blood fall on his head and trunk; then the boy came to life again. Then Eve said to him: "Smell the black stick; if you don't perhaps the merchant will see you again and kill you." So the boy smelled the stick and became white as a leper and went off in search of his mother.

So at last he reached the land where his mother was, and the king of that land had a great love of hearing stories. Begging his way along the boy reached the king's palace, and the people said to him: "Lad, do you know any tales? If you can tell him a story the king will be much pleased and give you a reward." The boy said, "Yes! I do know a story; if the king hears it he will be delighted." The people gave him something to eat and entertained him kindly till the evening; and when it was night the king sat in his place and beside him sat the merchant; the king's wife, and the merchant's wife, and the boy's mother and several wives of the lords sat behind seven screens, and the boy was brought forward.

So he began to tell his mother's story and his own — how his mother was married, and how his father had turned her away, and how his mother bore sorrow in the jungle and how she came to the *faqir*, and how he was born, and how the merchant deceived his mother and threw him into the well, and how he got out of it, and how the merchant had killed him, and how he came to life, and how he changed his form by smelling the stick.

And as he went on telling the story his mother's heart became the more affected, and at last she said: "Bravo! boy! you have well said! Raise one of the screens." And by the time the boy had finished the tale all the seven screens had been raised. At last the prince said:—"I am the boy," and his mother said: "Smell the other stick." He did so and came to his own shape, and his mother fell on his neck and wept, and said:—"I never hoped to see you again." Then the king rose from his place and embraced them both; for, of course, he was the prince's father; and he turned out his wicked queen, and had the merchant executed, and he and his queen and the prince lived happily ever after.

MISCELLANEA.

TWO FURTHER PANDYA DATES.

No. 1.

In continuation of a note which appeared in the April part of this *Journal* (*ante*, p. 121 f.) I subjoin another date which deserves to be calculated by an expert. For an impression of the record which contains the date, I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. R. Sewell, I. C. S. The original is stated to be inscribed on the second *gōpura* of the Śaiva temple at Tirukkālukkūṇṇam, "the sacred hill of the kites," or Pakshitīrtha,¹ in the Chingleput district.

1 Svasti Samasta-jagad-ādhāra Sōmakula-tilaka Madhurāpurī-Mādhava Kēraḷa-vaṁśāni[rmmā]lana Lankādvīpa-luṇṭana-dvītiya-

Rāma Chōlakula-śaila-kulīśa Karṇāṭarāja-vidrāvaṇa Kāthaka(ka)-kari-kūtapśka[la] vīvidha-ripudurgga-marḍana Vira-Kaṇṭha-Kōpāla-vipina-dā-

2 vadahana Kāñchi-puravar-ādhiśvara-Gaṇapati-harina-sārddūla Nellārapura-(vi)virachitavīr[ā*]bhishēka pra[ṇa]ta-rāja-pratishṭāpaka² mahārājādhi(ra)rāja-paramēśvara Tribhuvana-chakrava[r]ttiga[ī] śrī-Sundara-Paṇḍiya-dēvaṇṅku yā[ṇ]ḍu 9āvadu Ishava-nā[ya]ṇṇu pūrvva-pakshattu pañchamiy[u]m Śe[v*]vāy-kiḷa-

3 maiyum peṇṇa Pūnarpāsattu nāḷ.

"In the 9th year (*of the reign*) of the emperor of the three worlds, the glorious Sundara-Paṇḍyadēva, etc.,³ — on the day of (*the nakshatra*) Pūnarvasu, which corresponded to Tues-

¹ On the legends connected with this village see *ante*, Vol. X. p. 198 f. Mr. Venkayya has published three inscriptions from Tirukkālukkūṇṇam in the *Madras Christian College Magazine* for October 1890 and April 1892.

² Read *pratiśhīṇpaka*.

³ The translation of the Sanskrit *virūdas* is omitted, as they are the same as *ante*, p. 121.

day, the fifth *tithi* of the first fortnight of the month of Rishabha."

The above inscription must belong to the same reign as the Jambukēśvara inscription of Jaṭavarman, *alias* Sundara-Pāṇḍyadēva,⁴ because the same *birudas* are applied to the king in both. A third date of a king Sundara-Pāṇḍyadēva who bore the surname Jaṭavarman, appears to be contained in an inscription at Vikkiramangalam in the Madura district.⁵ But I am unable to vouch for the correctness of the published transcript, as I have no impressions at hand.

No. 2.

The following date occurs at the beginning of an inscription on the East wall of the second *prākāra* of the Raṅganātha temple at Srirangam near Trichinopoly.

1 Sṛi-kō-Mārapaṇmar-āṇa
Tiribuvāṇachohakkaravatt[1]ga! Sōṇḍu
vaḷaṅgi aruḷiya sṛi-Sundara-Pāṇḍiyadē-
var[k*]ku yāṇḍu oṇḍadāvuḷu

2 Mēsha-nāyarṇu apura-pakshattu tṛitīyai-
yūm Velli-kkiḷamaiyūm perṇa Viśāguttu nāl.

"In the ninth year (of the reign) of the glorious king Māṇavarman, *alias* the emperor of the three worlds, the glorious Sundara-Pāṇḍyadēva, who was pleased to distribute the Chōḷa country (among Brāhmaṇas). — on the day of (the *nakshatra*) Viśākhā, which corresponded to Friday, the third *tithi* of the second fortnight of the month of Mēsha."

The Sundara-Pāṇḍya of this inscription calls himself Māṇavarman, while that of the Jambukēśvara inscription bore the surname Jaṭavarman. Accordingly, the two kings must be considered as distinct from each other. To the reign of Māṇavarman belongs the Tirupparaṇkūṇṇam cave-inscription, which is dated "on the three-hundred-and-twenty-fifth day of the seventh year (of the reign) of the glorious king Māṇavarman, *alias* the emperor of the three worlds, the glorious Sundara-Pāṇḍyadēva, who was pleased to distribute the Chōḷa country;"⁶ and the smaller Tiruppāvaṇam grant, which is dated in the eleventh year, and refers to the tenth year, of "Sundara-Pāṇḍyadēva, who distributed the Chōḷa country."⁷ E. HULTSCH.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

'NO' AS A WORD OF ILL-OMEN IN BENGAL.

Mr. K. Srikanṭhaliyār, *ante*, p. 93, mentions that 'No' is a word of ill-omen among the Kōmaṭis in Southern India. In certain circumstances it is equally so in Bengal. No one will admit that there is no rice in the house, for fear of offending Annapūrnā, the goddess of the Corn and also of the Kitchen. The fact of the rice having

run short is intimated by saying with significance 'the rice has increased' (*baḍanti*). Annapūrnā is represented by the rice in the house, and in her hands the rice-balls should never fail to supply all guests, however numerous. In this way she is peculiarly the symbol of Hindu hospitality.

Calcutta.

GAURDAS BYRACK.

BOOK-NOTICE.

COINS OF ANCIENT INDIA from the Earliest Times down to the Seventh Century A. D., by MAJOR-GENERAL SIR A. CUNNINGHAM, K.O.I.E., C.S.I., R.E., London, B. Quaritch, 15, Piccadilly. 1891. Octavo, pp. ix. and 118, with 13 autotype plates, and a Map.

This work of Sir A. Cunningham is the first book which deals systematically with the coins of Ancient Northern India as a whole, and is thus assured of a warm welcome from all Indian coin collectors and numismatists. The richness of the author's cabinet and his unrivalled experience necessarily bestow on the book a distinctive value which could not be given to a work on the same subject by any other writer.

⁴ *ante*, p. 121.

⁵ Dr. Burgess' *Archæological Survey of Southern India*, Vol. IV pp. 18-20.

⁶ Mr. Naṭhēsa Śāstri (*ibid.* p. 45, text lines 48 ff.) reads: Sṛi-kōmarapaṇmarāṇa Tribhuvāṇachakravattiga! Sṛi-ṇḍu-vaḷaṅgi-aruḷiya sṛi-Sundaravarumadēvarṇu yāṇḍu eḷḍadu ṇāḷ munnḍṇ-irupatt-andipāl, while the original

The preface and the first forty-one pages of the treatise deal with metrology, the origin of coinage, and the Indian alphabets. In this part of his book the author reiterates many of the opinions on matters in dispute which he has frequently expressed in his other publications. Some of the positions maintained by him are open to attack, but for the present I pass these by, and proceed to consider the seventy-seven pages which describe the coins of ancient India.

The well-known coins of the Satraps of Surāshṭra and of the Gupta dynasty are not discussed by the author, as they have recently been

has Sṛi-kō-Mārapaṇmar-āṇa Tribhuvāṇachakravattiga! Sōṇḍu vaḷaṅgi-aruḷiya sṛi-Sundara-Pāṇḍiyadēvarṇu yāṇḍu eḷḍadu ṇāḷ munnḍṇ-irubatt-aṇḱiṇal.

⁷ Instead of *ṇarapaṇu aḷaṅkanar Sundarapaṇḍiya-dēvarṇu yāṇḍu ilḷadu* (*ibid.* p. 37, reverse of the Plate, I. 1), the facsimile (*ante*, Vol. VI. p. 148) reads Sṇḍu vaḷaṅgi-ṇa Sunḍara-Pāṇḍiyadēvarṇu yāṇḍu [pa]tt[ḍa]ḍa.

fully described in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* by the late Paṇḍit Bhagwanlal, Mr. E. J. Rapson, and the writer of this notice. In a second volume Sir A. Cunningham hopes to deal with the coins of Mediæval India from A. D. 600 down to the Muhammadan conquest, including the coinages of (1) the Rājās of Kāśmīr, (2) the Shāhīs of Gandhāra, (3) the Kalachuris of Chōḍī, (4) the Chandēllas of Mahōba, (5) the Tōmaras of Delhi, (6) the Chauhāns of Ajmīr, (7) the later coins of the Sisōdiyas of Mēwār, and (8) those of the Pundirs of Kāngrā.

This is an extensive programme, and all numismatists will anxiously expect the promised volume.

The early punch-marked and cast coins form the first group described in the volume under review, but the section expressly dealing with them is not exhaustive, many punch-marked and cast coins being dealt with in other parts of the book. It is a great pity that Sir A. Cunningham did not prepare an index; for, small though his treatise is, it is full of matter, and an attentive reader finds it very troublesome to be compelled to note for himself all the cross references which require to be made.

Notes of time, marking more or less closely the date of punch-marked coins, are rare. The author records two of interest. On the authority of the late Sir E. C. Bayley he observes that a few *much worn* specimens of the punch-marked class were found in company with hemidrachms of Antimachus II., Philoxenus, Lysias, Anti-alkidas, and Menander.

The second note of time is afforded by the fact that three worn silver punch-marked coins, weighing respectively 34, 35, and 42 grains were found "in the deposit at the foot of the Vajrāsan, or throne of Buddha, in the temple of Mahābōdhi at Buddha Gayā. As this deposit was made about A. D. 150, during the reign of the Indo-Scythian king Huvishka, we learn that punch-marked coins were still in circulation at that time." This inference nobody will dispute, and coins of the kind may have continued to circulate much later in some parts of the country. The issues of Gupta silver coins did not begin before A. D. 400, and it is probable that the silver punch-marked coins remained in circulation up to that date in Northern India, and possibly even later. But I cannot accept the argument by which Sir A. Cunningham tries to fix the Buddha Gayā coins to a date of about B.C. 450. His words are:—"The three coins weigh 111 grains, giving an average of only 37 grains. But, as the general average of upwards of 800 of these coins from all parts of India is upwards of 47 grains, I

am willing to accept a loss of 19 grains [*scilicet*, from 56, the assumed normal full weight] in about 600 years circulation, or, roughly, from B. C. 450 to A. D. 150, as very exceptional. These three coins show a loss of upwards of 3 grains per century, while the average loss of these punch-marked coins was not more than one grain and a half in a century. It must be remembered that they were all hardened with copper alloy."

The assumption that the normal wear and tear of such pieces was a grain and a half in a century, seems to me rather arbitrary. It would be difficult to quote an example of any class of coins remaining in circulation for 600 years; and small silver coins would be completely worn away long before the expiration of six centuries.

British rupees forty or fifty years old are often withdrawn because they have lost more than two per cent in half a century, or, say, from five to six per cent of weight in a century, and I can see no reason why the rate of loss in the case of punch-marked coins should be assumed to be less. Three grains out of fifty-six is approximately six per cent, and that might be taken as the minimum possible rate of loss for the small thin punch-marked coins, which would wear much quicker than English made rupees. Every one knows that four-anna pieces wear out very quickly, and could not be kept in circulation for a single century. It seems to me that B. C. 200 is a much more likely date than B. C. 450 for the Buddha Gayā coins, and even that may be too early. I can find no reason for the belief of Sir A. Cunningham (page 43) that some of the punch-marked coins may be as old as B. C. 1000. I agree, however, with him that there is nothing to indicate foreign influence on coins of this class, and that the evidence clearly points to their being an Indian invention.

The conjecture that some of the punched symbols may have been private marks of ancient money changers, is plausible.

The punch-marked copper coins (page 59), are much rarer than the silver ones, and at least one-half of those that Sir A. Cunningham has seen, "are simple forgeries of the silver coins, which betray themselves by their weight (that of the fifty grain [*sic*] *kārsha*), and sometimes by the silver still adhering to them." Similar forgeries or imitations exist in the Gupta series, and in many other ancient coinages.

On page 60, in the account of the cast coins, two slips of the pen have escaped correction.

The word "bulls" should be "balls," and the statement that "No. 28 . . . is of six different sizes, weighing respectively 107, 76, 26, and 11 grains," requires amendment.

The account of the coins of Taxila, illustrated by two entire plates, is valuable. A series of rare inscribed coins found only at that place (now Shâh kî dhêrt in the Râwalpindi District) bears the legend *négama* (or, in one instance, *nigama*) in Indian characters of the Aśoka period. On some coins the word is written *nēkama* in Gandharian (*i. e.* Arian, or Kharōshṭri) letters. Sir A. Cunningham wishes to interpret this word as the name of a coin, comparing it with the Greek νόμισμα, but this suggestion does not seem to be correct.

The word *négama* (*i. e.* *naigamā*), occurs in the Bhatiprôlu *Stûpa* inscription lately discovered by Mr. Rea in the Kistna (Kṛishnâ) District, Madras, and is interpreted by Dr. Bühler (*Academy for 28th May 1892, page 522*) to mean "members of a guild." That inscription appears to belong to the age of Aśoka, or a time very little later, and the word *négama*, (*nigama*, or *nēkama*) on the coins, which seem to date from the same period, should, in the absence of good reason to the contrary, be interpreted in the same way. The word *négama* (including the variant spellings) on the coins is associated with an unmistakable figure of a steelyard balance, and also with the words *dôjaka*, *râlimata*, and *antarôtaka*, of which the meaning seems to be at present unknown. Sir A. Cunningham's etymological speculations concerning these legends do not command assent.

The very rare coins bearing the legend Odumbara or Odumbarisa, which have been found only in the Kāngrâ District, have already been noticed in the *Archæological Reports* (Vol. V. p. 154, and XIV. p. 116.). Only two silver pieces are known, and the number of copper specimens is variously stated by the author in the same paragraph as five and seven. The silver pieces give the name of Râjâ Dhara Ghôsha in Pâli and Kharōshṭri characters. One of these coins is in the Lahore Museum, and was found in company with Kuninda coins and hemidrachms of Apollodotus, who reigned about B. C. 100.

The coins of Amôghabhūti, king of Kuninda, have been frequently published, but only five specimens of the Śiva type are known. The name Kuninda was first correctly read by Sir A. Cunningham many years ago. The late Mr. Thomas committed himself at one time to very rash speculations about the interpretation of the legend of these coins.

The local coins of the ancient city Kôsâmbi, near Allâhâbâd, appear to comprise the issues of at least four princes, namely, Bahasata Mitra, Aśva Ghôsha, Jêtha Mitra, and Dhana Dêva. The connection of the first named ruler with Kôsâmbi is proved by the occurrence of an inscription of his in the neighbourhood. The coin legends do not include the name of the town, and I presume that the proof of the connection between Kôsâmbi and the other three rulers named rests chiefly on unpublished evidence as to the find spots of their coins. Coins of Dhana Dêva are recorded to have been found at Ayôdhyâ (*Arch. Reports*, Vol. I. p. 319). His coins are stated to be very numerous.

Plate vi. is devoted to the illustration of coins ascribed to the Yaudhêya tribe, now represented by the Jôhiyas along the Satluj River and in the Salt Range. The coins numbered 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 13, of the Plate include the name Yaudhêya in their legends. I cannot perceive any reason for ascribing the single-die coin No. 1 with common Buddhist symbols to the Yaudhêyas, and the same remark applies to the broken coin No. 5, but the ascription of the remaining pieces (with the doubtful exception of No. 14), is satisfactorily established. The small copper coins, in two sizes, Nos. 2, 3 and 4, have on the obverse a humped bull to right, approaching a Bôdhi tree with railing, with the legend *Yaudhêyand* (or *-ni*), and on the reverse an elephant walking to right, with Buddhist symbols. This class of small copper coins is believed to date from about the first century B. C. I would name it the Bull and Elephant Type. Figures 6, 7, and 8 represent large copper coins, with a mean weight of 172 grains, which form a totally distinct class, copied from the Indo-Scythian money, and apparently later in date than A. D. 300. The obverse shows an armed figure standing to front, with spear in right hand, and left hand on hip; cock in field to right. Legend in old Nâgarî characters: *Yaudhêya ganasya jaya*. In one instance the word *devi*, and, in another, the word *tri* follows *jaya*. The reverse is occupied by a standing male figure and sundry symbols.

This type may be called the Javelin Type, which name has been generally accepted for the corresponding class of Gupta coins. The legend shows that these coins are those of the Yaudhêya tribe or clan.

Figure 9 represents a silver coin, apparently the only one known in that metal, which belongs to a third completely distinct type. The author remarks that this piece and certain related copper coins (Nos. 10, 11, 12, 13) "are, perhaps, of a

slightly later date." They seem to me to be considerably later in date, and not earlier than A. D. 500.

They are characterized by the rude six-headed male figure on the obverse, which is probably intended for Kārttikēya, son of Śiva, and god of war, and may be conveniently named the Kārttikēya Type. The legend on the silver piece is *Bhḍgavatō Svāmīna Brāhmaṇa Yaudhēya*, and that on some of the copper coins is *Bhḍgavata Svāmīna Brāhmaṇa Dēvākya*.

The obverse device of Figure 14 is simply a snake, with the legend *Bhānu Varma*, and the ascription of this piece to the Yaudhēyas does not appear to be certain.

The Yaudhēya coins deserve further investigation and illustration.

If space permitted, Sir A. Cunningham's description of the Coins of Pañchāla (Northern Rohilkhand), Mathurā, and Ayōdhya should receive a long discussion; but it is impossible to treat the subject adequately in a review. The coins of the Mitra dynasty, characterized by the incuse square obverse, generally ascribed to the Śuṅga kings, are regarded by the author as the issues of a local dynasty, inasmuch "as they are very rarely found beyond the limits of the North Pañchāla, which would not be the case, did they belong to the paramount dynasty of Śuṅgas." The princes with the cognomen of Mitra who issued these coins, are Dhruva Mitra, Śūrya Mitra, Phalguni Mitra, Bhānu Mitra, Bhūmi Mitra, Agni Mitra, Jaya Mitra, Indra Mitra, and Viṣṇu Mitra: — a very remarkable series of names. The names of Bhadrā Ghōṣha and Viśva Pāla also occur.

The well-known Horse and Bull coins of Satya Mitra, Śūrya Mitra, and Vijaya Mitra, as well as the closely related coins of Saṅgha (Mitra) are classed by Sir A. Cunningham as Ayōdhya issues. But I am by no means certain that the same Śūrya Mitra did not issue both the Incuse Square and the Horse and Bull coins. It is certainly a mistake to say that the Incuse Square coins are "very rarely found beyond the limits of the North Pañchāla." I have myself three coins of Indra Mitra found in Oudh, and Mr. J. Hooper, B.C.S., has many other coins of the same class, obtained chiefly in the neighbourhood of Ayōdhya. Coins of this class are also found in Basti and the other districts adjoining Oudh, where the Horse and Bull coins likewise occur. Certain princes, with the cognomen Mitra, namely Gō Mitra and Brahma Mitra issued coins which are classed by Sir A. Cunningham as Mathurā issues. These various Mitra coins require, and

would, I think, repay detailed study and investigation.

The Mathurā coins of the Satraps Hagā-masha and Hagāna (page 87) are now, I believe, published for the first time.

The chapters dealing with the coins of Ujain and Ērap are very interesting, but the greater part of their contents has already been published in the *Archæological Survey Reports*, and I must refrain from discussing them. The coin from Ērap figured as No. 18 in Plate xi. is, however, too remarkable to be passed over. It "is a thick rude piece of copper, weighing 171 grains. It bears the name of Dhama Pālasini, written reversedly [scilicet, from right to left] in large Asōka characters of early date." This legend may be older than the inscriptions of Asōka. Sir A. Cunningham includes in his work a brief account of the Andhra coins on the ground that the Andhra kings claim in their inscriptions to have extended their sway far to the north of the Narbadā River, and may thus be reckoned among the dynasties of Northern India, with which the book is concerned. Sir A. Cunningham adopts Dr. Bühler's results (*ante*, Vol. XII. p. 272), as regards the succession and chronology of the Andhra monarchs.

The coins, which are generally made of lead, fall into two main classes, the Western, from the neighbourhood of Kōlhāpur, and the Southern, from the neighbourhood of Amarāvati on the Krishṇā (Kistna) River. The Western coins are mostly characterized by the obverse device of a bow, with arrow fixed. The Southern coins have for leading obverse device a horse, elephant, *stūpa* (*chaitya*), lion, or two-masted ship; and for reverse device the cross and balls, characteristic of the coinage of Ujain. Sir A. Cunningham observes that "one specimen has an elephant;" but I possess nine small leaden coins from the Krishṇā District, given me by Dr. Hultzsch, all of which seem to bear the elephant obverse device. They are very rude coins.

Three of the kings also coined in copper, using the Bow and Arrow device, and one silver coin struck by Yajña Śātakarṇi, resembling the Satrap coinage of Surāshṭra, was found in the *stūpa* of Sōpāra.

The concluding section of the book is devoted to a brief discussion of the coinage of Nēpāl. Sir A. Cunningham accepts "with perfect confidence" the determination of the chronology by Dr. Bühler, whose results are very different from those at which Dr. Fleet arrived. Dr. Fleet thought that the Śūryavamśi Lichchhavi dynasty

ruled simultaneously with the Thākuri dynasty, whereas Dr. Bühler, interpreting differently the dates of certain inscriptions, holds that the Lichchhavi dynasty ended after A. D. 634, and was succeeded about A. D. 640 by the Thākuri dynasty, founded by Thākur Amsuvarman.

The coins, which are all copper, ranging in weight from 95 to 250 grains, bear the names of Mānānka, Gunānka, Vaisravana, Amsuvarman, Jishnugupta, and Paśupati. Three of these coins had long ago been published by Prinsep and Sir A. Cunningham, and several of the types were published by Dr. Hoernle and myself for the first time in 1887 (*Proc. A. S. Bengal*), amended readings being given in the same periodical for the following year. The coins then described were from a find presented to me by Dr. Gimlette, and are now divided between the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Dr. Hoernle, and myself. Colonel Warren's coins, some of which are figured and described by Sir A. Cunningham, have been recently acquired by the British Museum. The approximate date, A. D. 640, of Amsuvarman's coins is certain, but the dates and order of the other coins are far from being settled. In fact the Népāl coinage requires to be worked out in a separate monograph before it can be satisfactorily treated in brief. In describing the coins of Mānānka and Gunānka, Sir A. Cunningham transposes the terms obverse and reverse. There can be no doubt that the side occupied by the seated goddess is, as in the Gupta coinage, properly denominated the reverse.

No one can be more grateful than I am to Sir A. Cunningham for giving to numismatic students the first intelligible guide-book to the numerous groups of miscellaneous early Indian coins, or can appreciate better the knowledge and learning displayed in the small book under review. But it is a reviewer's business to criticize, and I may be pardoned for pointing out some defects. M. Ed. Drouin, when criticizing my work on the Gupta coinage, complained with justice that the autotype figures in the plates are often unsatisfactory. The same criticism applies with much greater force to the plates in this work, the coins figured being frequently much worn copper pieces, of which the photographs are necessarily very indistinct. In many instances the more expensive and troublesome process of engraving from drawings would have given far better results.

This review has run to such a length that it is impossible to discuss the introductory sections of the book, but a few dubious statements may be noted. Modern scholars do not generally accept the date "from 600 to 543 B. C." for the lifetime

of Buddha (page 3). On page 20 the statement is repeated in the form that "Buddha's death is placed in the middle of the sixth century B. C."

The observations on the derivation of the term *tanika* in pages 24-26 will hardly command general acceptance. The date 84 (page 37) for the Hashtnagar inscription appears to be incorrect. I think it may safely be asserted that the date is either 274 or 284, as read by Dr. Bühler, and originally by Sir A. Cunningham.

On page 49 the small gold coins of Southern India, known by the name of *hān*, are said to average 52 grains, the weight being adjusted to that of the *kalanju* seed, which is "over 50 grains." On page 51 the *hāns* are said to have been "intended for half *dīndrs* of the Roman standard"; and, on the same page, the *hān* is declared to be "the original gold *karsha* of 57.6 grains, which has now dwindled down to 52 and 53 grains," and ten of the older *hāns* are said to give an average of 55 grains. These statements, which are not altogether consistent, appear to require revision. I do not see how the weight of the *hān* can be derived from that of the *kalanju* seed of "over 50 grains," a purely indigenous measure, and also be copied from the Roman *dīndr* standard.

The citation of the legend of the purchase of the Jētavana garden to prove the antiquity of "square Indian coins" (page 53) suggests the criticism, first, that Sir A. Cunningham much antedates Buddha, secondly, that the representations in the sculptures prove nothing as to the facts in the time of Buddha, but only indicate what seemed to the sculptor a suitable way for representing a payment, and, thirdly, that early square gold coins are not known to exist. The legend illustrated by the sculpture refers to gold coins.

I am glad to see that Sir A. Cunningham has ceased to use the values 1.75 grain and 140 grains for the *rati* and *suvarna* respectively, and now uses the much more correct values 1.8 and 144. The values 1.825 and 146 which I have employed in my publications, are perhaps more strictly correct, but 1.8 and 144 are sufficiently accurate, and form a very convenient basis for a table of weights.

On page 53 the words "eight *ratis*, or 140 grains," should be read "eighty *ratis*, or 144 grains." On the same page it is stated that the Jētavana story "will be found in the appendix," but there is no appendix.

V. A. SMITH.

Cheltenham,
22 June 1892.


THE THIRD INSTALMENT OF THE BOWER MANUSCRIPT.

BY PROFESSOR A. F. RUDOLF HOERNLE.

IN the present paper I publish that portion of the Bower Manuscript, which contains the short treatise, referred to *ante*, p. 129, on conjuration or the use of magic spells.

This portion consists of four leaves. In shape they are exactly like those previously published; but they are of a somewhat smaller size, measuring only 9 by 2 inches. There is also an appreciable difference in their material; it is not so brittle as in the other parts of the manuscript, but feels tough and supple. A different preparation of the bark would seem to have been used for these leaves. A specimen, being the obverse of the third leaf, is published in the lower part of Plate III., issued with the *Proceedings* of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for November 1891.

The treatise, to which the four leaves belong, is referred to in my paper "On the Date of the Bower Manuscript" (*ante*, p. 29)¹ as "the third portion C." I have there ascribed the writing of this portion, which is in a large and somewhat slovenly hand, to a scribe distinct from those that wrote the portions published in my first and second instalments. On closer examination, however, and further consideration, I do not feel now quite so sure on this point. It is just possible that the portions published in my second and in the present instalments may be the products of the same scribe, the second portion being written by him in a careful calligraphic hand, but the third in a hurried and rather slovenly manner.

The test letter here is the palatal *ś*, which, both in the second and third portions, has the form of a straight-lined square with a circular loop at the lower left-hand corner, while in the first portion it is a square with a rounded top and a minute forked tail in the place of the loop. In the third portion, in keeping with its more slovenly character, the loop is sometimes left more or less open, and the top-line of the square more or less indented. In fact this indentation is seen in most letters that have a top-line; it is well shown, *e.g.*, in the akshara *grā* of *sahgrāmam* in the 5th line (fl. IIIa⁵). On the figured page, unfortunately, the palatal *ś* occurs only once, in *yāsasvinah*, in the 4th line (fl. IIIa⁴), where the *ś* shows the open loop, but a straight top. This distinction in the shape of the *ś* is quite sufficient to show that the writing of the second and third portions belongs to one and the same class, as distinguished from the writing of the first portion. That it belongs not only to the same class but to the same scribe is shown by another significant circumstance connected with the same palatal letter *ś*. Occasionally this letter assumes, in the third portion, a very cursive form, in which the loop is connected with the top-stroke, so that the whole letter can be drawn with no more than two strokes of the pen, thus  (*e.g.*, in *śāntayś* IIIb⁶, *yāsamitrasya* IIIb⁶). Now in one or two places in the second instalment a few letters are inserted between the lines of calligraphic writing, to supply blundered omissions. These inserted letters are written not calligraphically, like the rest of the writing, but in a hurried, slovenly hand, strikingly resembling the hand of the third portion. In one of these interpolations, *na śāntayā* in fl. IIIb¹ (*ante*, p. 139), the letter *ś* occurs and is there drawn in precisely the same very current form which is peculiar to the third portion. This fact seems clearly to prove, that, if not the writer, at all events the reviser, of the second portion was identical with the writer of the third portion. But there is no reason why the writer of the second portion should have been a different person from its reviser. It is at least equally probable that the same person, who at first wrote his manuscript in a calligraphic hand, afterwards made the corrections in a more hurried and cursive hand, — *viz.*, the same in which he wrote another manuscript (*i.e.*, the third portion).

When it is observed that both the second and third portions have this in common, that they never use the transitional or modern forms of *y*, but exclusively the old tripartite form, — it further tends to make probable the identity of the scribes of those two portions. Add to this,

¹ Also in the *Journal Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LX., Part I., pp. 80, 81.

that the writing of the third portion also agrees with that of the second in the matter of the hook attached to the bottom of the main perpendicular (see *ante*, p. 129).

The leaves are again of varying thickness. The first has three, the third has six, and the second and fourth have each four layers.

This portion of the Manuscript is complete. It commences at the top of the obverse of the first leaf and concludes with the second line on the reverse of the fourth leaf, the remainder of which is left blank. **The treatise which it contains relates a Buddhist tradition:** how on the occasion of a novice, named Svāti, being bitten by a cobra, Buddha, who was then living in Anāthapiṇḍada's garden in Jētavana near Srāvastī, gave a curative spell (*śānti-svastayana*)² against snake-bite to his disciple Ānanda for the purpose of saving Svāti. The introduction, which is written in prose, extends as far as the middle of the last line on the obverse of the second leaf. It first relates the occasion on which the spell was given, and next enumerates all the dangers or diseases against which the spell may be put in practice. **Then follows the great spell,** which is composed partly in verse (*śloka*), partly in prose. The intelligible portions are in verse, while the unintelligible jargon, consisting mostly of alliterating or rhyming words, is in prose. The spell ends in the fifth line on the obverse of the fourth leaf. **It is called the Mahāmāyūri, and described as a vidyārājā, or "queen of the magic art."** *Mahāmāyūrī*, I notice, is said in the abridged Petersburg Dictionary to be "the proper name of one of the five talismans and of one of the five tutelary goddesses of the Buddhists." The present treatise shows it to be the name of a spell. From the fact of the mention, before the commencement of the spell (fl. Ib³), of the ligature to be placed on the bitten part, I conclude that the saying of the spell was intended to accompany the operation of tying the ligature. See further remarks on this subject in Appendix III to this paper.

The spell is followed by the conclusion, which is again in prose. This consists of a series of salutations addressed to Buddha and Buddhism, under various synonyms, and of good wishes addressed to a certain "Yasamitra" (for Yaśōmitra). This would seem to be the name of either the composer of the treatise, or of the person on whose behalf it was composed. Sir Monier Williams' Sanskrit Dictionary, I find, gives it as "the name of a Buddhist author;" but in the abridged Petersburg Dictionary it is only noted as the name of various persons in Jain tradition.

A fragment of this portion of the Manuscript,—that on the obverse of the third leaf—was published by me in the April, 1891, *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, pp. 60, 61. It was also published, about the same time, and independently of me, by Professor Bühler in the *Vienna Oriental Journal*, Vol. V., pp. 106, 108, and in the *Academy of the 15th August 1891*, pp. 138, 139. His reading and translation were reviewed by Mr. R. Morris in the *Academy of the 29th August 1891*, pp. 178, 179, and by Dr. A. Stein in the *Vienna Oriental Journal*, Vol. V., pp. 343—345. Mr. Morris, in his review, has given valuable identifications of some of those **Nagarajas**, whose names occur on fl. IIIa. In Appendix I to this paper I have added such further information, as I have been able to gather from the literature of the Northern Buddhists available to me, on all those whose names occur in the second part of the spell. But perhaps Mr. Morris and other Buddhist scholars, whose acquaintance with that literature is more intimate than mine, may feel disposed to supplement this information, which, I need hardly say, will be gratefully acknowledged by me in the edition I am preparing for the Government of India.

Professor Bühler, who interprets the term *gôlā* (fl. IIIa²; see also fl. IIb⁴) as the same as *Gôdāvarī*, the well-known river in the Dekhan, accordingly considers it probable that the snake-charm was composed in Southern India. I cannot agree with this opinion; I have given my reasons, in a note to the translation, showing that *gôlā* cannot be a proper name, but must be a common noun, meaning 'district.' Nothing, therefore, can be extracted from this word to indicate the locality of the composition of the spell. Dr. Stein, on the other hand, suggests that

² See *post*, Appendix III. The term corresponds to the German *Heilspruch*.

the charm was probably composed in Kāśmīr, because most of the names, occurring on fl. IIIa, are those of well-known Nāgas or Sacred Springs of that country. It will be interesting to learn, now that I have published the whole of the *mantra*, whether any more, and how many, of the names in the list occur in the Nīlamata Purāṇa as those of springs in Kāśmīr. The fact that the manuscript was undoubtedly written in Kāśmīr, or in an adjoining country, naturally raises a presumption that the charm contained in it may have been composed in the same locality. On the other hand, there is the circumstance that the names of the Nāga kings, mentioned in the spell, are, as Mr. Morris has shown, the common property of the whole of Northern Buddhism, and probably also of the Southern.³

Professor Buhler suggests that the *mantra* is "a charm which is intended to force the Nāgas or snake-deities to send rain." The portion of it contained on fol. IIIa certainly supports this interpretation; and Mr. Morris quotes a similar list of names of Nāgas from a Chinese "rain-asking-*sūtra*." I was disposed to hold the same opinion at first, but gave it up when I came to read the whole of the manuscript.⁴ The introduction shows unmistakably that the *mantra* is intended to be a charm against snake-bite, for Ānanda was to pronounce it over Svāti in order to cure him of the bite of a cobra; and this is also clearly implied in the final words "from all poisons," in the concluding sentences. Its real character of a snake-charm is also clearly shown by its identity with the snake-charm in the Jātaka book, of which I give an account in Appendix II. At the same time the charm would seem to be intended to be a protection against all sorts of ills and troubles. I take this to be the meaning of the long list of evils given in the introduction as well as in the conclusion. Still there is clearly a prayer for rain expressed in the two first lines of fol. IIIa. For the presence of this prayer in a snake-charm I can give no satisfactory explanation; though the prayer was, no doubt, suggested by the fact that the Nāgas are also looked upon as water-deities, residing in springs or lakes.

As a curiosity I may note, that the word *jaṅgamā*, occurring at the end of verse 15, on fl. IVa³, appears to be a gloss of the scribe, added to explain the meaning of the word *trāsa*. *Trāsa* properly means 'fear' or 'fearful,' but it is sometimes used erroneously in the place of *trasa*, which means 'movable,' as opposed to *sthāvara* 'immovable' or 'stationary.' The object of adding the gloss would seem to have been to prevent a misunderstanding of the meaning of *trāsa*, which, however, was obvious enough in the context. That the word is not a genuine part of the text, but a mere gloss, is shown by its being extraneous to the metre of both verses 15 and 16.

Of two curious parallels which I have discovered, (one in the Jātaka book, the other in old Indian medical books), I have given a full account in the Appendices II. and III. respectively. The credit of the discovery in the Jātaka book, however, is really due to Professor Bühler, who first pointed out⁵ the occurrence, in the *Khandhavatta Jātaka*, of the name Chabhyāputra, and who would, of course, have noticed the more extended agreement, if he had had the full text of our spell before him at the time when he wrote his paper.

The state of the text and the character of the composition in this part of the manuscript are similar to those in the other parts which I have published. There is a considerable number of clerical blunders and omissions. To mention some of the most obvious of different kinds: we have *namō klayē* for *namō stu mukṭayē*, fl. IVa⁶; *daharāḥ staruṇaḥ* for *daharāḥ taruṇaḥ* or *daharas=taruṇaḥ*, fl. Ia²; *ētaḍ=avācha* for *ētaḍ=uvācha*, fl. Ib¹; *śulam* for *śūlam*, fl. IIa⁵; *vāsukīṇā* for *vāsukīṇā*, fl. IIIa³. Sometimes anusvāras are inserted where they should not be, e. g., in *saṅgrāmaṇim=anubhaviṇvanti* for *saṅgrāmam=anubhavanṭi*, fl. IIIa⁵; in other places they are omitted where they should stand, e. g., in *rakṣā karōhi* for *rakṣāṃ karōhi*, fl. Ib². In several

³ See also the note on No. 33, *Sāketaka*, in Appendix I.

⁴ See my remarks, in the *Journal, As. Soc. Beng.*, Vol. LX, Part I., p. 80, in my paper "On the date of the Bower MS."

⁵ See *Vienna Oriental Journal*, Vol. V., p. 110.

places the vowels *ô* and *â* are written where one would expect *ā* and *ē* respectively; e. g., *mahārāṭraṃ* for *mahārātraṃ*, fl. IIb¹; *upasargōpāyābhyah* for *upasargōpāyēbhyah*, fl. IVb¹. Occasionally the scribe has made corrections; thus in fl. IIIa⁴ he had originally written *nandōpandō*, but corrected it to *nandōpanandō* by inserting *na* between the lines; again in fl. Ia⁶ he seems originally to have written *vāhayamānam*, which he partially rubbed out and over-wrote with *vāhayamantam*.

Grammatical anomalies are equally numerous. I may instance the following :—

I. — In Orthography : confusion of letters : *s* for *sh* in *dārusu* for *dārushu*, fl. Ia⁴; *ṛi* for *ri* in *nīṣṛitā* for *nīṣritā*, fl. IIIb⁵; *ṛi* for *ṛi* in *Dhṛitarāshṛēshu* for *Dhṛitarāshṛēshu*, fl. IIIa³, *ṛishikēshu* for *ṛishikēshu*, fl. IIIb³, *prithivī* for *prithivī*, fl. IIIb⁵; *ḍ* for *l* in *Mahāḍḍi* for *Mahāḍḍi*, fl. IIb³; *ṇ* for *n* in *varttayamānaṃ* for *varttayamānaṃ*, fl. Ia⁶; *ṇ* for *n* in *drōhani* for *drōhani*, fl. IIb². Final *t* is omitted in *chaturthakā* for *chaturthakāt*, fl. IIa², *jvarā* for *jvarāt*, fl. IIa³, *ācharē* for *ācharēt* fl. IVa⁴. Insertion of connecting consonants : *m* in *Vāsukind-m-āpi* fl. IIIa⁴, perhaps *pari-m-apanaya*, fl. IIa⁴. Insertion of a separating vowel, *i* in *śirisha* for *śirsha*, fl. IIa⁴. Doubling of a consonant : *dh* before *y*, in *maddhya*, fl. IIa⁶. Sandhi neglected in *toruṇaḥ achira*, fl. Ia³, *parivartayamānaḥ dvārakeśid*, fl. Ia⁵, *bhōntu anāmaya*, fl. IVa³, etc. False sandhi : *dēvō samantēna*, fl. IIIa² (for *dēvaḥ sa*°), *Kōlakō Apalāś=cha*, fl. IIIb¹ (for *Kōlakō 'pa*°), *Bhōgavān Śrāmaṇērakah*, fl. IIIb¹ (for *Bhōgavān Śrām*°), *duchchāyā*, fl. IIa¹ (for *duśchhāyā*). Omission of visarga : before *s* : fl. Ia⁵ *Ānanda Svātir*, fl. IIIb³ *Kumbhira Sūchilōmas*; before *k* : fl. IIb¹ *karmmaṇa kavkhōrdō*; before *p* : fl. Ia² *bhikshu prativasati*; in pausā : fl. IIIa⁵ *mahārāhikā*, etc. Some among the above given instances might have been also classed as examples of anomalous grammar.

II. — In Grammar : (a) Declension : nom. sing. ; fl. IIIa² *dēvō*, fl. Ia² *bhikshu*; instr. plur., fl. IIIb⁶ *śnshāhi*, *lēhi*; abl. sing., fl. Ib³ *grahātō*, fl. IIa² *chaturthakā*, fl. IIa³ *jvarā*; abl. plur., fl. IVb¹ *upāyābhyah* (possibly a clerical error); loc. sing., fl. Ia¹ *śkasmī*, fl. IIb⁴ *gōlāya*, *ēlāya*, fl. IIIa² *parivēlāya*.

(b) Conjugation : 3. plur. pres., fl. IVa³ *bhōntu*; 3. sing. opt., fl. IVa⁴ *ācharē*; 2. sing. imp., fl. Ib² and Ib³ *karōhi*; 2. sing. aor., fl. IVa¹ *hiṃsi*; part. pres., fl. Ia⁶ *vāhayamantam*.⁶ Most of these anomalies are more or less pure Prakriticisms; so is also the spelling of *ēlāya* with *ē* (for Skr. *śaila*), also of *dvēṭṭya* fl. IIa² and *dēvāsura* fl. IIIa⁴. With regard to the forms *parivēlāya*, *gōlāya*, *ēlāya*, they may be either taken as anomalous locative forms of feminine nouns in *ā*, and this is supported by the fact that *gōlā* certainly occurs as a feminine noun on fl. IIIa² in the genitive singular *gōlāyāḥ*. Or they may be taken as datives of masculine nouns in *a*, used anomalously in the place of locatives, and for this makes the fact that *ēlā* (Skr. *śaila*) is usually a masculine noun.

(c) In Syntax : exchange of cases : instr. for loc., fl. Ia¹ *Śrāvastyā* (for *Śrāvastyāni*), fl. Ia *saṃayēna*: instr. and loc. used promiscuously, fl. IIIa³ *Virūpākshēshu*, but *Maṇinā*. False concord : nom. and acc., fl. Ia⁵ *Svātir-bhikshum* (for *Svātīni bhikshum*, perhaps a clerical error); sing. and plur., fl. Ia⁵ *sa sravanti* (for *sravati*), fl. IVa³ *sukhō bhōntu* (for *sukhā*, perhaps a clerical error).

(d) Composition : fl. IIa¹ *kṛitya-karma* (for *kṛityā*), fl. IIa⁴ *makshi-rōga* (for *makshi*), fl. IIa⁵ *ūrū-śūla* (for *ūru*), fl. IVa⁶ *Yasā-mitra* (for *Yasō*); fl. IIIa³ *nāga-rājan* (for *nāga-rāja*, but also in Sanskrit); perhaps fl. IIa⁴ *pari-m-apanaya* (for *pary-apanaya*).

III.—In Prosody : false quantity, fl. IIb¹ *mama*, fl. IIIa⁴ *cha*, see also fl. IIIb², IIIb³, IIIb⁵, IVa¹. One syllable in excess, see fl. IIIa², IIIa⁵, IIIa⁶, IIIb³, IIIb⁵; two syllables in excess, see fl. IIIa⁵; one syllable short, see fl. III. b⁴; two syllables short, see fl. IIIb⁶ (probably a clerical error).

⁶ The scribe had originally written *vāhayamānam*.

IV.—In Vocabulary : new words or new meanings ;

- avadhūta*, 'injury,' 'destruction,' fl. IIa³.
āglāna, 'exhausted,' fl. Ia⁶.
Ugātima, a Nāga, fl. IIIb³.
Īlapatra, a Nāga, fl. IIIb⁴ (usually *Īlāpatra*).
Ōkīraṇa 'destruction,' fl. 2a¹ (for *avakīraṇa*).
Kavkhōrda, a kind of sorcery, fl. 2a¹.
Karṇaka, a Nāga, fl. IIIb³.
Kāṭṭī, probably Prākritic for *Kūrttikā*, fl. IIb³.
kṛitya, 'witchcraft,' fl. IIa¹ (usually *kṛityā*).
Kōlaka, a Nāga, fl. IIIb⁴.
gupta, 'protection,' fl. Ib³ (for *gupti*).
gōld, 'district,' fl. IIb⁴, IIIa².
Chhībāsuta, a Nāga, fl. IIIa⁶ (Pāli *Chhābbyāputra*).
Daṇḍapāda, a Nāga, fl. IIIa⁴.
dushaṇa, 'destroying,' 'antidote' (for *dūshaṇa*).
dustāraṇa, 'the evil eye,' fl. Ib⁶ (opp. *sutāra*).
nīrīta, 'inhabiting,' fl. IIIb⁵ (only *nīraya* 'dwelling-place' noted in dictionaries).
Nairāvaṇa, a Nāga, fl. IIIa² (Skr. *Vaiśravaṇa*).
paritra, 'defence,' 'protection,' fl. Ib³ (Pāli *paritta*, from √ *pri* + *tra*).
parivēlā (or *parivēla* ?), 'circumference,' fl. IIIa².
Pīhila, a Nāga, fl. IIIb⁴.
Puṇḍarīka, a Nāga, fl. IIIb¹.
makshi-rōga, a kind of skin disease, fl. IIa⁴.
mahōrātra, 'the time after midnight,' 'midnight,' fl. IIb¹ (perhaps an error for *mahdrātra*).
Rishika, a Nāga, fl. IIIb³.
Lambura, a Nāga, fl. IIIb⁴.
Vatsīputra, a Nāga, IIIb⁴ fl. (Petersburg Dict., *Vātsīputra*).
Vāsumukha, a Nāga, fl. IIIa⁶.
vāhita, 'enunciated,' 'put forth,' fl. IVa⁶.
Vēgudī, a kind of goddess, fl. IIb².
Sakaṭamukha, a Nāga, fl. IIIb³.
Sāṇhāpāda, a Nāga, fl. IIIb².
Srāmaṇēra, a Nāga, fl. IIIb¹.
Saṁhāraka, a Nāga, fl. IIIa (comp. *Saṁhāra* in Petersburg Dict.).
Sāhētaka, a Nāga, fl. IIIb².
Sunanda, a Nāga, fl. IIIb⁴.
Sūchīlōma, a Nāga, fl. IIIb² (on the Bharaut Stūpa).

One more point should be noted. For the purpose of interpunctuation a small hook, very much resembling the modern comma is used. In the portion of the manuscript, published in my second instalment, a small stroke or 'dash' is employed. In the Nāgarī transcript, I have represented the hook by a dash, for clearness sake; but in the Roman transliteration I have used commas. In the concluding salutations, the visarga seems to be occasionally employed as a mark of interpunctuation, alternating with the usual comma, and resembling the modern semi-colon; thus after *Buddhāya* fl. IVa⁵, after *Muktāya* fl. IVa⁶. After *rakṣaṁtu* in fl. IVb² the visarga is employed in addition to the usual mark of a double stroke, to indicate the "full stop." I have seen the visarga occasionally used in this way in modern Hindi manuscripts, as noted in my *Gaudian Grammar*.

In the following transcript, transliteration and translation I have followed the same system as in my previous instalments; see *ante*, pp. 134, 135.

TEXT.

1. Transcript.

First Leaf: Obverse.

1. एव मया श्रुतमेकस्मि समये भगवा च्छ्रावस्त्या विहरति जेतवने अनाथपिण्डवस्थाराम
2. समयेन श्रावस्त्या जेतवने अनाथपिण्डवस्थारामे—स्वातिर्नाम भिक्षु प्रतिवसति स्मु—नवो दहरः स्तरु-
3. णः अचिरप्रव्रजितः अजिरागतः इमं धर्मविनयं संघस्थायै जेन्ताकशरूणि पाटयमानो न्य-
4. तरात्पूतिशरुसु पणिष्क्रम्य महता कृष्णसर्पेण दक्षिणे पादांगुष्ठे दष्टः स क्लान्तकायः भूमौ प-
5. तितः केनं श्रावत्यक्षीणि च परिवर्त्तयमानः आत्राक्षीशायुष्मानानन्द स्वातिर्भिक्षुमनाधिकं बाढा-
6. ग्रानं केनं बाह्यमन्तमक्षीणि च परिवर्त्तयमाणं स्वपंत दृष्ट्वा च पुन स्रि . स्रि . . .

First Leaf: Reverse.

1. तस्याहं भगवं कथं प्रतिपद्यामि—एवमुक्ते भगवानाशुष्मन्तमानन्दमेतद्वाच—गच्छ स्वमानन्द
2. वचनेन—अनया महामायुर्या विद्याराजाया स्वातिर्भिक्षो रक्षा करोहि गुप्तं परित्रं परिमहं परिपालनं शान्ति-
3. स्वस्त्ययनं इण्डपरिं विषवृषणं विषनाशनं सीमाबन्धं धरणीबन्धं च करोहि—देवमहातो
- नागम-
4. हातो—असुरम . . —मरुतमहातो—गरुडमहातो—गन्धर्वमहातो—किन्नरमहातो—महोरगमहातो
5. यक्षमहातो—राक्षसमहातो—प्रेतमहातो—पिशाचमहातो—भूतमहातो—कुम्भमहातो—पूतनमहातो
6. कटपूतनमहातो—स्कन्दमहातो—उन्मादमहातो—च्छायामहातो—अपस्मारमहातो—ओस्तरकमहातो

Second Leaf: Obverse.

1. कृत्यकर्मण कञ्जोर्षीकिरण—वेताडचिचप्रेषकदुर्भुक्तदुच्छईत—दुच्छाय ओम
2. वधूतातो ज्वरादेकाहिकहेतीयकत्रैतीयकाचातुर्थका सप्ताहिकासप्तमासिका मासिकाद्वैव सकृन्मूत्त-
3. नित्यज्वराद्विषमज्वराद्विषमज्वरान्मानुषज्वराद्विषमज्वरानुषज्वरा—वातिकपैत्तिकश्लेष्मिकसन्निपातिकात्सर्वज्वरा
4. शिरिषोर्ति परिमपनय अर्धावभेदकं—अरोचकं—भक्षिरोगं नासारोगं मुखरोगं कण्ठरोगं हृदयरोगं
5. कर्णशूलं—दंतशूलं हृदयशूलं—पार्श्वशूलं—पृष्ठशूलं उदरशूलं—गण्डशूलं वस्तिशूलं ऊरुशूलं
6. अङ्घाशूलं—हस्तशूलं—पादशूलं—अंगप्रत्यंगशूलं चापनय—रात्रौ स्वस्ति दिवा स्वस्ति स्वस्ति मङ्गलदिने

Second Leaf: Reverse.

1. स्थिते—स्वस्ति सर्वमहोरात्रं सर्वबुद्धा कुर्वन्तु—मम ॥ इडि—विडि—हिंविडि—निडे—अडे—याडे—
2. इगडे—हरिवेगुडि—पांछपिशाचिनि—आरोहनि—ओरोहाणि—एले—मेले—तिले—किले—तिले—मेले मिले
3. तिनि—हुमिपे—इडि—मिडि—विष्टब्धे—विमले—इड—इड—अश्वमुखि काहि—महाकाडि—प्रकीर्ण-
4. कोशी—कुलु—कुलु—वस्फलु—कोलु—कोलु—धोसाकुम्बा—रोकुम्बा—दुम—कुम्ब—गोलाय—शैलाय—हिङ्गु—
5. हिलि—हि—मिलि—मिलि—तिलि—तिलि—डुलु—डुलु—मुलु—मुलु—मुलु—मुलु—मुलु—मुलु—मुलु—इड—इड—
- . . — ह .
6. इड—बबा—बबा—बबा—बबा—बबा—जल—जल—जल—जल—जल—इम

Third Leaf: Obverse.

1. दुन्वुभी—गर्जनी—वर्षणी—स्फोटनी—पतनी—पाचनी—हारिणी—कंपन—मदन—मड
2. क्त मे—गोलायाः परिवेलाय वर्षतु देवो समन्तेन—इलि किसि स्वहा ॥ मैत्री मे अितराष्ट्रेषु मैत्री नैरा-
3. वनेषु च—विरूपाक्षेण मे मैत्री कृष्णगौतमेकेषु च—मणिना नागराज्ञा मे मैत्री वासुकीना
4. मपि—इण्डपादेषु . गेषु पूर्णमन्त्रेषु च सदा—नन्दीपवन्यो ये नागा वर्णवन्तो यथास्विनः स्वा-
5. सुरं पि संप्रानमयुर्भवंति महर्षिका—अनवतप्तेन वरुणेन मैत्री संहारकेन च—तक्षकेन अनन्तेन
6. तथा वासुखेन च—अपराजितेन मे मैत्री मैत्री च्छिन्नवसुतेन च—महामनस्विना निर्यं तथैव च.

Third Leaf: Reverse.

1. मनस्विना—कालको अपलालश्च भोगवान्भामपेरकः सधिमुखो मणिश्चैव पुण्डरीको दिशां पतिः
ककौटक
2. शंखपादः कंबलाश्वतराजुभौ—एतेष्वपि च मे मैत्री नागराजेषु नित्यशः—साकेतकश्च कुंभीर सूचीलो-
3. मस्तयैव च—उगातिमेन कालेन मैत्री मे रिषिकेषु च—तथा पूरणकर्णक मैत्री शकटमुखेन च
4. कोलकोन मुनन्देन वत्सीपुत्रेण च सदा—एलपत्रेण मे मैत्री मैत्री लंजुरेण च—पिथिलश्च महानागो
5. मुचिलिन्दश्च विश्रुतः प्रियीवीचराश्च ये नागा तथैव जलनिघृता—अनरीक्षचरा ये च मेरुसमा-
6. भिताः एकशीर्षद्वीशीर्षाहि मैत्री तेहि . नित्यशः अपादेषु मे मैत्री मैत्री ॐ द्वि . ॐ

Fourth Leaf: Obverse.

1. देषु मे मैत्री मैत्री बहुपदेषु च—मा मे अपादको हिसि मा म
2. च मे बहुपादकः सर्वनागेषु मे मैत्री ये नागा जलनिभिताः सर्वभूतेषु मे मैत्रय स
3. सर्वसत्त्वेषु मे मैत्री ये सत्त्वा वासस्थावराः जंगमा सर्वे सत्त्वा सुखो भोन्तु सर्वे भोन्तु
अनामया—सर्व
4. भद्राणि पश्यंतु मा कश्च पापमाचरे—मैत्रचित्तं समादाय करोमि विषदुषण—रक्षां परिग्रहं चै-
5. व तथैव परिपालनं ॥ नमो बुद्धायः नमो स्तु बोधये नमो विमुक्ताय—नमो विमुक्तये—नमो स्तु
शान्ताय—न-
6. मो स्तु शान्तये—नमो स्तु मुक्तायः नमो क्तये—ये ब्रह्माणा बाहिसत्त्वा धर्मास्तेषां नमस्ते
च यशमित्रस्य

Fourth Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 . र पालयंतु स्वाहा—सर्वभयेभ्यः सर्वोपद्रवेभ्यः सर्वोपसर्गोपायाभ्यः सर्वज्वरेभ्यः
- 2 सर्वव्याधिभ्यः सर्वप्रहेभ्यः सर्वविषेभ्यः रक्षंतुः ॥

II. Transliteration.

First Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 @ Ēva[m] mayā śrutam=ēkasmi samayē Bhagavā ch=Chhrāvastyā⁷ viharati Jēta-
vanē Ānāthapindadasy=(ā)r[ā]m[ē] [tēna]
- 2 samayēna Srāvastyā Jētavanē Ānāthapindadasy=ārāmē, Svātir=nāma bhikshu prati-
vasati smu⁸ navō daharaḥ s=taru-
- 3 ṇaḥ⁹ achira-pravrajī(ṭaḥ) ajir-āgataḥ imaṁ dharmma-vinayaṁ saṁghasy=ārthē
jēntāka-dārūṇi pātayamānō nya-
- 4 tarāt=pūti-dārusu pa[ri]nīshkrāmya mahatā kṛishṇa-sarpēṇa dakshīṇē pādāṁgusṭhē
dasṭṭaḥ sa klānta-kāyaḥ bhūmau pa-
- 5 titāḥ phēṇaṁ srāvānty=akshīṇi cha parivarttayamānaḥ āvrākshīd=āyushmān=
Ānanda Svātir=bhikshum=anadhikaṁ bāḍhā-
- 6 g[l]āna(m) phēṇaṁ vāhayamāntam¹⁰=akshīṇi cha parivarttayamānaṁ sva(pa)m(ta)¹¹
d(ri)sh(tv)ā (cha) p[u](na) s(ū)ri . s□□□□□ □ē

First Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 tasy=āham Bhagavaṁ katham pratipadyāmi, ēvam=uktē Bhagavān=āyushmantam=
Ānandam=ētaḍ=avācha,¹² gachchha tv(am=Ānanda) (T)[a](th)[ā](g)[atas](y)=[aiva]
- 2 vachanēna, anayā mahā-māyūryā vidyā-rājāyā¹³ Svāti-bhikshō rakshā¹⁴ karōhi
guptam paritrām parigrahaṁ paripālanaṁ śānti-

⁷ Read *Bhagavān=Chhrāvastyā* or *Bhagavān=ch=Chhrāvastyā*, or possibly *Bhagavā* is the Pāli form of the nom. sing., though this would not account for the change of the following initial *s* to *chchh*.

⁸ Read *smā*.

⁹ Read either *daharas-tarunaḥ* or *daharaḥ tarunaḥ*.

¹⁰ Here the original writing seems to have been *vāhayamānaṁ* which was corrected afterwards to *vāhayamāntam*.

¹¹ Read *svapantam*.

¹² Read *uvācha*.

¹³ Read *rājāyā*.

¹⁴ Read *rakshām*.

- 3 svastyayanam daṇḍa-pari[h]āram visha-dushanam visha-nāśanam sīmā-bandhanam
dharani-bandham cha karōhi, Dēva-grahātō, Nāga-gra-
4 hātō, Asura-gra[bātō], Maruta-grahātō, Garuḍa-grahātō, Gandharva-grahātō, Kinnara-
grahātō, Mahōraga-grahātō
5 Yaksha-grahātō, Rākshasa-grahātō, Prēta-grahātō, Piśācha-grahātō, Bhūta-grahātō,
Kumbhāṇḍa-grahātō, Pūtana-grahātō
6 Kaṭa-pūtana-grahātō, Skanda-grahātō, Unmāda-grahātō, ch=Chhāyā¹⁵-grahātō, Apasmāra-
grahātō, ōs(t)āraka¹⁶-g[r]ah(āt)ō

Second Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 kṛitya-karmmaṇa kavkhōrd¹⁷-ōkīraṇa, Vētāḍa-chichecha-prēshaka-durbhukta-duchchhar-
dd[i]ta, duchchh(ā)y[ā], (ōpra)
2 vadhūtātō jvarād=ēkāhika-dvētiyaka-traitiyakāch=chāturthakā saptāhikād=ardha-māsikā
māsikād=¹⁸aiva sakṛi(n)-in[au](h)ū[r]tt[ikā]
3 nitya-jvarād=vishama-jvarād=(bh)[ū]ta-jvarān=mānusha-jvarād=a-mānusha-jvarā, vātika-pai-
ttika-slēshmika-sannipātikāt=sarvva-jvarā
4 śirishō-rtti¹⁹-pari-m-apanaya ardh-āvabhēḍakam, arōchakam, makshi-rōgam nāsā-rōgam
mukha-rōgam kaṇṭha-rōgam hṛidaya-rōgam
5 karṇa-sūlam, danta-sūlam²⁰ hṛidaya-sūlam, pārśva-sūlam,²⁰ prishṭha-sūlam, udara-
sūlam, gaṇḍa-sūlam²⁰ vasti-sūlam ūrū-sūlam
6 jamghā-sūlam, hasta-sūlam pāda-sūlam, aṅga-pratyamga-sūlam ch=āpanaya, rātran
svasti divā svasti svasti maddhya-dinē

Second Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 sthitō, [i] svasti sarvva-mahōrātram²¹ sarvva-buddhā kurvvaṃtu, mama²² || Iḍi,
viḍi, hiviḍi, niḍā, aḍē, yāḍē,
2 dṛigaḍē, Hari-vēguḍi, Pāmsu-pisāchini, ārōhani, ōrōhani,²³ ēlē, mēlē, tilē, kilē,²⁴
tilē, mēlē milē
3 timi, dumipē, iṭṭi, miṭṭi, viṣṭabdhē, vimalē, huhu, huhu, Aśva-mukhi Kāṭṭi,
Mahākāḍi²⁵ Prakīrṇa-
4 kēśi, kulu, kulu, vasphalu, kōlu, kōlu, Dhōsā-dumbā, Dō-dumbā, duma, dumba,
gōlāya, sēlāya, hiśu,
5 hili, hi, mili, mili, tili, tili, chulu, chulu, mulu, mulu, mulu, mulu, mulu,
mulu, mulu, huhu, hub[u], [huhu], h[uhu]
6 huhu, babā, babā, babā, babā, babā, jala, jala, jala, jala, jala,
(d)[u](ma) . . □ī

Third Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 Dundubhi, Garjaṇi, Varshaṇi, Spōṭaṇi, Patani, Pāchani, Hāriṇi, Kāmpaṇ[i]
Madan[i], M[an]ḍ[an]i,
2 kta²⁶ mē, Gōlāyāḥ parivēlāya varshatu dēvō samantēna,²⁷ Ili Kisi svahā²⁸ ||
Maitri mē Dhritarāshtrēshu maitri Nairā-

¹⁵ Or perhaps *chhayā*, with short *a*; the akshara is indistinct; the *Vyutpatti* seems to read *chhayā*; see App. I.

¹⁶ Perhaps read *astīraha*.

¹⁷ Perhaps intended for *kakkhārdā*; see App. III.

¹⁸ Read *ēva*.

¹⁹ See footnote to translation.

²⁰ Read *sūlam*.

²¹ Read *mahārātram*.

²² From *rātran* to *mama* is a śloka, but the 4th pāda has one syllable in excess. Between *mama* and the two strokes of interpunctuation, there appears to have been originally a longish scroll which is now nearly washed out.

²³ Cf. Skr. *avarōhani*.

²⁴ Or perhaps *bhīlē* or *tilē*. The first akshara is blurred.

²⁵ For *Mahākāḍi*.

²⁶ The akshara *kta* is written on the margin, outside the line; and the exact relation in which it stands to the text is doubtful. The full word may have been *prayukhta*.

²⁷ From *gōlāyāḥ* to *samantēna* are two pādas of a śloka, but the second of them has one syllable in excess.

²⁸ Read *svahā*. The first ā-stroke is not "abnormally short," but is entirely wanting. I have noticed the faulty form *svahā* also in modern Tibetan Buddhist scripts.

- 3 vaṇeṣhu cha, [1] Virūpākṣeṣhu mē maitrī Kṛiṣṇa-Gautamakēṣhu cha, [11 1 11]
 Maṇinā nāga-rājūā mē maitrī Vāsukinā²⁹
 4 m=api, [4] Daṇḍapādēṣhu [nā]gēṣhu Pūrṇabhadreṣhu cha³⁰ sadā, [11 2 11] Nand-
 ōpanandō³¹ yē nāgā varuṇavāntō yaśasvināḥ [1] dēv-ā-
 5 suraṁ pi samgrāmaṁ=anubhāvaṁti³² mah-ardhikā,³³ [11 3 11] Anavataptēna
 Varuṇēna³⁴ maitrī Saṁhārakēna cha, [1] Takṣhakēna Anantēna
 6 tathā Vāsumukhēna cha, [11 4 11] Aparājītēna mē maitrī³⁵ maitrī ch=Chhib-
 basutēna cha, [4] Mahīmanasvinā nityaṁ tath=aiṣa cha

Third Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 Maṇasvinā, [11 5 11] Kālakō Apalāś=cha Bhōgavān=Śramaṇērakaḥ [1] Dadhimukhō
 Maṇiś=ch=aiṣa Puṇḍarikō diśāṁ patiḥ [11 6 11] Karkōṭaka
 2 Saṁkṣhapādāḥ³⁵ Kambal-Āśvatarāv=ubhau, [1] ētēshv=api cha mē maitrī nāga-
 rājēṣhu nityaṁ, [11 7 11] Sākētakāś³⁶=cha Kumbhīra Sūcllīlō.
 3 mas=tath=aiṣa cha, [1] Ugāti(m)ēna³⁷ Kālēna maitrī mē Rishikēṣhu cha, [11 8 11]
 tathā Pūraṇa-Karṇaka³⁸ maitrī Sakatamukhēna cha³⁹ [1]
 4 Kōlakēna Sunandēna Vatsīputrēṇa cha sadā, [11 9 11] Ēlapatrēṇa⁴⁰ me maitrī
 maitrī Lamburēṇa cha,⁴¹ [1] Pithilāś=cha mahā-nāgō
 5 Muckilindaś=cha viśrutāḥ [11 10 11] Prithivī-charāś=cha yē nāgā⁴² tath=aiṣa jala-
 nīṣṭā, [1] amṭarikṣa-charā yē cha Mēru-samā-
 4 śritāḥ⁴³ [11 11 11] Ēka-śīrsha-dvī-śīrshāhi⁴⁴ maitrī tēhi mē⁴⁵ nityaṁ [1] A-pādēṣhu
 mē maitrī mai(tr)ī [m]ē (d)[v]i-[pad]ē[shu cha] [11 12 11] [Chatush-pa-]

Fourth Leaf: Obverse.

- 1 dēshu mē maitrī maitrī bahu-pādēṣhu cha, [1] mā mē a-pādak(ō) h(im)si mā
 (m)[ē himsi] [d]v[ipādakah] [11 13 11] [Mā mē chatushpadō himsi na]⁴⁶
 2 cha mē bahu-pādakah [1] sarvva-nāgēṣhu mē maitrī yē nāgā jala-nīṣṭāḥ
 [11 14 11] Sarvva-bhūtēṣhu mē m(ai)trī [1] (y)[ē] (s)[at](v)[ā] . — — — [1]
 3 sarvva-satvēṣhu mē maitrī yē satvā trāsa-sthāvarāḥ jaṁgamā⁴⁷ [11 15 11] Sarvvē
 satvā⁴⁸ sukhō bhōntu sarvvē bhōntu anā(ma)y(ā), [1] sa[r]vv[ē]
 4 bhadrāṇi paśyaṁtu mā kaś=cha pāpam=ācharē, [11 16 11] Maitra-chittam samādāya
 karōmi visha-dūṣhaṇaṁ, [1] rakṣhām parigrahaṁ ch=ai-
 5 va tath=aiṣa paripālanam [11 17 11] Namō Buddhāya:⁴⁹ namō stu bōdhayē, namō
 Vimuktāya, namō vimuktayē, namō stu Śāntāya, na-
 6 mō stu śāntayē, namō stu Mukṭāya: namō ktayē,⁵⁰ yē Brahmāṇā⁵¹ vāhita-pāpā
 dharmās=tēṣhām namaś=tē cha Yaśamitrasya

Fourth Leaf: Reverse.

- 1 (p)[ā](r)[aṁ] pālayaṁtu svāhā, sarvva-bhayēbhyāḥ sarvv-ōpadravēbhyāḥ sarvv-ōpasarg-
 ōpāyābhyāḥ⁵¹ sarvva-jvarēbhyāḥ
 2 sarvva-vyādhibhyāḥ sarvva-grahēbhyāḥ sarvva-vishēbhyāḥ rakṣaṁtu : ॥

²⁹ Read *Vāsukinā*, m. c.³⁰ The quantity of this foot is false.³¹ Read *Nandīpanandā*.³² Read *samgrāmaṁ-anubhavaṁti*.³³ This pāda has one syllable in excess.³⁴ This pāda has two syllables in excess.³⁵ This pāda scans irregularly.³⁶ Or possibly *Sākēttakāś=cha*.³⁷ The penultimate consonant is mutilated, but is only suggestive of *m*.³⁸ Perhaps read *Pūraṇa-Karṇakēna*.³⁹ Usually spelled *Ēlapatra*.⁴⁰ This pāda is short by one syllable; insert *mē* after *maitrī*.⁴¹ This pāda has one syllable in excess. Read *prithivī*, m. c.⁴² This pāda is short by two syllables. Read *mēru-prithivī* or *mēru-kūṣa-samāśritāḥ*.⁴³ Read *dvīśīrshāhi*, m. c.⁴⁴ *Mē* is nearly washed out and obliterated; moreover read *mē tēhi*, m. c.⁴⁵ Compare the Pāli version in Appendix II. ⁴⁶ *Jaṁgamā* is superfluous. ⁴⁷ Read here and throughout *sattvā*.⁴⁸ Probably read *namō stu Buddhāya*.⁴⁹ Read *stu muktayē*.⁵⁰ Read *Brahmāṇā*.⁵¹ Read *ōpāyēbhyāḥ*.

TRANSLATION.

Thus it has been related to me: Once upon a time the Blessed One was staying in Jêta-vana, the garden of Anâthapiṇḍada in Śrāvastī. At that time there lived in Jêtavana, the garden of Anâthapiṇḍada in Śrāvastī, a mendicant, called Svâtī, (who was) now, fresh (and) young, (and) had but lately joined the Order, and but recently submitted to this (i.e., the Buddhist) Doctrine and Discipline

While he was chopping fire-wood for the dry hot bath of the congregation, he was bitten in the great toe of his right foot by a large black snake (i.e., cobra), which had crept out from another side among the logs of deodâr-wood.⁵² He fell exhausted to the ground, foamed at his mouth, rolled his eyes, and tore his flesh. The venerable Ānanda seeing the mendicant Svâtī as he lay in an unconscious state, utterly and thoroughly exhausted, foaming at his mouth and rolling his eyes, inquired of the master:

First Leaf: Reverse.

"O Blessed One, how can I effect this man's recovery?" When he said this, the Blessed one spoke thus to the venerable Ānanda: "Go thou, O Ānanda, (and) in the name of the Tathâgata⁵³ save the mendicant Svâtī with the following spell, the most excellent of the magic art! Grant him guard,⁵⁴ defence, assistance, protection, a charm for recovery, preservation from danger, counteraction of the poison, destruction of the poison, and apply a ligature to the wound,⁵⁵ a ligature to the vein! Deliver him from seizure by a Dêva, from seizure by a Nâga, from seizure by an Asura, from seizure by a Maruta, from seizure by a Garuḍa, from seizure by a Gandharva, from seizure by a Kinnara, from seizure by a Mahôrâga, from seizure by a Yaksha, from seizure by a Râkshasa, from seizure by a Piṣāka, from seizure by a Piśācha, from seizure by a Bhûta, from seizure by a Kumbhângḍa, from seizure by a Pâtana, from seizure by a Kaṭapâtana, from seizure by Skanda, from seizure by mania, from seizure by night-mare, from seizure by epilepsy, from seizure by the evil eye,⁵⁶

Second Leaf: Obverse.

from the exercise of witchcraft, from destruction by *kakkhôrda*, from injury by Vêtâlas that attend at burning-places,⁵⁷ bad food, bad vomiting, bad night-mare,⁵⁸ from fever, such as comes on every day or every second day or every third day or every fourth day or every seventh day, or every half-month, or every month, or even only once for a moment, from continued fever, from remittent fever, from fever such as spirits or such as men or such as non-human beings are subject to, from fever such as arises from derangement of the air or of the bile or of the phlegm or of all three combined, in short, from every kind of fever down to

⁵² *Pâtī-dâru* I take to be the same as *pâtī-kāshītha* which is said to be a species of pine, the Deodar; but perhaps it may here mean 'rotten logs of wood.' The Pāli version (see App. II) has *pâtī-rukkha*, Skr. *pâtī-vriksha*; this is said in the Petersburg Dictionary to be *Colosanthus Indica*, but that would hardly yield fire-wood.

⁵³ There are here slight traces visible of the letters *t*, *th*, *g* and subscribed *y*. With these and the known number of missing aksharas, I propose to fill up the lacuna, as given in the transliterated text.

⁵⁴ *Gupta* for *gupti*, just as *jāta* for *jāti* in the Aśoka inscriptions, see Journ. Germ. Or. Soc., Vol. XLII., p. 69.

⁵⁵ *Simā* is properly the line of junction of the lips of a wound or puncture.

⁵⁶ I do not know *ôstâraka*; it should be the name of some mysterious evil; it may be a Prâkritized form of *apastâraka* or *apastâra* *a*, but these words themselves are unknown. I am disposed to consider it a misspelling for *dustâraka*; the letters *ô* and *du* have considerable likeness; there is probably a similar misspelling in fl. IIa¹ *ô-pra* or *du-pro* . . . , whatever the full word may have been (*duh-pramêha*?). *Dustâraka* might be the 'evil eye,' opp. *sutâraka*, or 'good eye.'

⁵⁷ I take *chichcha* to be a Prâkritized form of Skr. *chitya*.

⁵⁸ The MS. puts a comma after *kirina* as well as after *duchghharddita*; but as all these nouns are in the crude base, while the context requires the ablative case, it would seem that they are all in composition with the ablative *vidhâpâto* (*avadhâpâto*), abl. sing. of *avadhâta*. *Ôkirana* stands for *avakirana*, lit. 'sweeping off'; the Charaka has *avakirana* for 'sweepings'; it is a synonym of *avadhâta*; or it may be derived from root *krî* (*krinôti*) 'to, kill' On *kakkhôrda* see Appendix III. *Kritya* I take to stand for *kṛtyâ*; but it might be "demons who dig out corpses," see Hsien Tsang (Vol. I., p. 158, note 118).

headacho.⁵⁰ Remove (from him) also hemicrania, indigestion, fly-like diseases of the skin,⁶⁰ diseases of the nose, diseases of the mouth, diseases of the throat, diseases of the heart, pains in the ear, pains in the teeth, pains in the heart, pains in the side, pains in the back, pains in the belly, pains in the cheek, pains in the bladder, pains in the thigh, pains in the legs, pains in the hands, pains in the feet, pains in any limb, whether large or small.

Health⁶¹ at night; health in the day; health while midday lasts;

Second Leaf: Reverse.

health all the time after midnight⁶²; may all the Buddhas grant (it) to me! Iḍi, viḍi, hiviḍi! Niḍē, aḍē, yāḍē, ḍṛigaḍē! Oh ye Vēguḍis of the sun-rays, ye dust-Pisāchinis that ascend and descend!⁶³ Elē, mēlē, tilē, kilē, tilē, mēlē, milē! Timi, dumiḍē! Itṭi, miṭṭi! In a well fixed, spotless place! Huhu, huhu! O thou horse-faced-one Kāṭṭi,⁶⁴ Mahākālī, with dishevelled hair! Kulu, kulu, vaspala, kōlu, kōlu! Dhōsā-dumbā, Dō-dumbā,⁶⁵ duma, dumbā! In the district,⁶⁶ on the mountain! Hiśu, hili, hi. Mili, mili, tili, tili! Chulu, chulu, mūlu, mulu, mulu, mulu, mulu, mulu, mula! Huhu, huhu, huhu, huhu, huhu! Babā, babā, babā, babā, babā! Jala, jala, jala, jala! Duma

Third Leaf: Obverse.

(May) the goddesses of rumbling, thundering, raining, crashing, falling, ripening, captivating, waving, delighting, adorning (grant me prosperity⁶⁷). May the dēva send rain all round over the borders of my district! Ili Kisi! Svāhā!

⁵⁰ I do not quite understand the construction of this passage. There is no verb to govern *juardī* and the other ablatives, except *apanaṇa*, which also belongs to *śirish'rtti*. The construction of *pari* also is puzzling; it seems here to mean "from-to;" i.e., 'remove all diseases from the fevers down to the headache.' Moreover *pari* seems to be compounded with *śirish'rtti* (like *upari*), and the whole compound declined in the accusative case *śirish'rttiparim*, instead of *śirish'rttiḥ pari*. But *m* might also be a mere connecting consonant.—*Śirish'rtti* is a curiously blundered compound, for Skr. *śrīrṣṭi*; for *śirisha* is a prakṛitised form of Skr. *śrīṣa*, and the compound should be *śirish'rtti*. Perhaps *śirish'rtti* is a mere clerical error for *śirish'rtti*.

⁶⁰ *M'ishi-riga* is not noticed in any dictionary accessible to me. But as *māṣikā* is a synonym of *maśaka*, I take *māṣikā* to be the same disease as *maśaka*.

⁶¹ Here the *Mahāmāyā* or 'great spell' commences.

⁶² The text has *mah'-rātram* "the night of the festival," but the context rather suggests *mahārātram* "midnight" or "the time after midnight." The vowels *o* and *ā* are occasionally confused in this part of the MS., compare *śirish'rtti* for *śirish'rtti* in I b* (note 59), *sukhā* for *sukhā* IV a*.

⁶³ On the *Pisānu-pisāchinī* or "the female Pisāchas of the dust" see Childers' *Pāli Dictionary*, s. v. *Pisācho*. They are one of the four kinds of *Prētas*. The phrase reminds one of the particles of dust that dance up and down in the rays of the sun. *Vēguḍi* I take to be a vernacular (Pāli or Prakṛit) form of the Skr. *bēkuri*, which is given in the smaller Petersburg Dictionary as an epithet of the Apsaras. *Hari* I take to be here the "sun" or "the rays of the sun."

⁶⁴ *Kāṭṭi* I take to be a vernacular form of Skr. *Kārttikī*, the spouse or Śakti of Kārttikēya (Skanda or Śiva), the same as *Mahākālī*.

⁶⁵ *Dhōsā-dumbā* and *Dō-dumbā* are probably also vernacular appellatives; but I cannot identify them in Sanskrit.

⁶⁶ *Gōlā* occurs again on fl. III a* *gōlāyāḥ parivāḍya* 'on the circumference of the district.' In Hémachandra's Grammar, II, 174, it is noted as a vernacular form of the river name *Gōdāvarī*; and in this sense it is taken by Prof. Bühler in the *Vienna Oriental Journal*, V, p. 108 and 107, footnote, who refers it to the well-known Godāvarī of the Dekhan. Dr. Stein, however, points out, *ibidem*, p. 345, that there is also a small river, Godāvarī in Kāśmīr, "which enjoys considerable sanctity and is still at the present time visited by pilgrims." If *gōlā* should have to be interpreted here as a river name, the Kāśmīr Godāvarī has undoubtedly a better claim to consideration, as the character of the letters in which the MS. is written shows that it cannot have been produced in South India. But Dr. Stein adds that he has "not yet in Kāśmīr texts come across the shortened form of *Gōlā* for *Gōdāvarī*;" and it seems to me most improbable that the word can be here a river name. It is placed by the side of the word *ś'la* (or *ślā*), which is clearly the Sanskrit *śaila*, 'mountain,' and is not the proper name of any particular mountain. Similarly *gōlā* (or *gōlā*) should be a mere common noun, and, accordingly, I take it in the sense 'circle,' 'district.' This meaning also fits in better in the other phrase *gōlāyāḥ parivāḍya*, for *parivāḍya* properly means 'circumference,' which can hardly be applied to a river. I prefer, therefore, adhering to my original translation in *Proceedings, As. Soc. Beng.*, for 1891, p. 61. I may add that in the Abridged Petersburg Dictionary *gōlā* is noted with the meaning of 'disc,' 'circle,' and that the word is still used in the Indian Vernaculars in the sense of 'circle,' 'district.'

⁶⁷ I agree with Mr. Morris that we have here no "*mantra* for an oblation" (Prof. Bühler), and that the list of words does not contain the names of "various plants," but "epithets of Śiva's female counterpart Durgā."

(Verse 1) I hold friendship with Dhṛitarāshṭra and his race, and friendship with Nairāvaṇa and his race⁶⁸. With Virūpākṣa and his race I hold friendship, and with Kṛiṣṇa and Gautama and their races. (Verse 2) With Maṇi, the king of Nāgas, I hold friendship, also with Vāsuki, and with the Nāgas Daṇḍapīḍa and Pūrjabhadra and their races at all times. (Verse 3) With the Nāgas Nanda and Upananda, the beautiful (and) glorious, who with their supernatural power assist even in the war of the dēvas with the Asuras, (Verse 4) with Anavatapta, Varuṇa and Saṃhāraka I hold friendship; likewise with Takshaka, Ananta, and Vāsumukha. (Verse 5) With Aparājita I hold friendship, and friendship with Chhibbasuta,⁶⁹ likewise with Mahāmanasvin always and

Third Leaf: Reverse.

with Manasvin. (Verse 6) Also Kālaka, Apālāla, Bhōgavanta, Srāmaṇṭaka, Dadhimukha, Maṇi, and Puṇḍarīka, the lord of the quarters, (Verse 7) Karkōṭika, Saṅkhaṇḍa, and both Kambala and Aśvatara: with these kings of Nāgas also I hold friendship perpetually: (Verse 8) and (with) Kumabhīra (and) Śākēṭaka, and likewise (with) Sūchīlōma. With Ugātima⁷⁰ (and) Kāla I hold friendship and with Rishika and his race. (Verse 9) Likewise with Pūrāṇa and Karṇa I hold friendship and with Śikāṭamukha, and with Kōlaka, Sunanda (and) Vatsīputra at all times. (Verse 10) With Ellipatra I hold friendship, and friendship with Lambura, and (with) Pithila, the great Nāga; and Muchilinda,⁷¹ the famous. (Verse 11) The Nāgas that live on land, likewise those that inhabit the water, and those that live on high, dwelling on Mēru's summit; (verse 12) those with one head and those with two heads, — with them I hold friendship perpetually. With the footless I hold friendship; I hold friendship with the two-footed; (Verse 13) with the four-footed

Fourth Leaf: Obverse.

I hold friendship, and friendship with the many-footed. The footless shall not do harm to me, nor shall the two-footed; (Verse 14) (the four-footed shall do no harm to me), nor shall the many-footed. With all Nāgas that inhabit the water I hold friendship; (Verse 15) with all living beings that live and shall live⁷² I hold friendship; with all beings, whether movable or immovable, I hold friendship.⁷³ (Verse 16) May all beings enjoy happiness, may all enjoy health; may all experience pleasures, and may no one practise sin. (Verse 17) In the exercise of a friendly spirit I give a remedy counteracting the poison, (I grant) safety and assistance and protection.⁷⁴

Reverence be to the Buddha! Reverence be to the Truth! Reverence be to the Emancipated one, reverence be to the Emancipation! Reverence be to the Peaceful one, reverence be

I think, they are *dēvas*, or perhaps *Nāgās*. It looks like a description of a thunderstorm in summer. First the distant rumbling of thunder, then the near thunder and pouring rain, interspersed with crashes of thunder; then the gentle fall of rain; followed by the ripening of the crop, which waves in the breezy sunshine and delights men and adorns the landscape. The missing syllables may be thus supplied: *samriddhim prayunkta me*, "may they grant me prosperity."

⁶⁸ With regard to the plurals of the names, see a note in Appendix II., so also with regard to Nairāvaṇa.

⁶⁹ Chhibbasuta occurs under the Pāli form Chhabbāputta in Jat. II, p. 145. See Appendix II.

⁷⁰ The word *ugātima* is puzzling. In the Tibetan *dhāraṇīs* there is a snake-king, called Ugatē. Ugātima may, therefore, be a name; but I am rather disposed to suggest that *gā* is a clerical error for *grā*, and that the whole stands for Skr. *ugratama*, being an epithet of Kāla, "the most terrible Kāla." See however Appendix I.

⁷¹ Muchilinda, the seven-headed snake, was the guardian of the Mandākinī waters, and is famous on account of the protection afforded by him to Buddha at the time of his trial. On him and the other Nāgarājas mentioned in the spell, see the notes in Appendix I.

⁷² The missing portion of the text I would propose to supply by *yē sattvā bhūta-bhāvinaḥ*. The Pāli version (see Appendix II.) has *sattā, pāṇā, bhūtā*. Of these *sattā* corresponds to our *sattva*, and *pāṇā* and *bhūtā* would seem to correspond to our *bhūta*. The Pāli commentary explains *pāṇā ṃ bhūtā bhāvinaḥ nibbattana-vasēna bhūtā ti vachana-matto-visēso veditabbō*, i.e., 'between *pāṇa* (*prāṇa*) and *bhūta* there is only a verbal difference, they mean: what lives and what will live through the principle of re-birth.'

⁷³ The text here adds *janagāṃ*. This is not only in excess of the metre, but is also a synonym of *trāsa*. I conjecture that it is a gloss, added by the copyist, to explain *trāsa* which should properly be spelt *trasa*. The latter means "movable," while *trāsa* means "terrifying."

⁷⁴ Here ends the spell.

to the Peace ! Reverence be to the Delivered one, reverence be to the Deliverance ! The principles of evil and good which have been declared by the Brahma (*i. e.*, the Buddha), to them be reverence, and may they safeguard Yaśômitra's welfare ! Svâhâ.⁷⁶ May they save (him) from all fears, all troubles, all temptations and allurements, all fevers, all diseases, all seizures, all poisons !

APPENDIX I.

The Nāgarājas.

I append a list of the Nāgarājas, Nāgas, Dēvis, and the other supernatural beings invoked in the foregoing spell. To this I add such references and information as I have been able to gather. Of the *Tibetan Dictionary*, called the *Mahāvīyutpatti* the Asiatic Society of Bengal possesses a Manuscript translation, prepared by Osoma de Kōrōs. This is referred to in my notes as *Vy.* Dr. Waddell, to whom we owe some valuable papers published in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, has given me several lists of Naga names, extracted from Tibetan Nāga Dharaṇīs or rain-charms. Those are referred to as *Wd.* In either case, I preserve the spelling of the respective informants. The *Abridged Petersburg Sanskrit Dictionary* is quoted as *P. Dy.*, Childers' *Pāli Dictionary* as *Pāli Dy.*, the *Mahābhārata* as *M. Bh.*, and Hünen Tsiang from Beal's *Buddhist Records of the Western World*. The Chinese *Sūtra*, = *Ch. S.*, is the *Varāha Varsha Sūtra* quoted by Mr. Morris in the *Academy*.

(I) Nāgas and Nāgarājas : 1, Dhṛitarāshṭra, 2, Nairāvaṇa, 3, Virūpāksha, 4, Kṛishṇa, 5, Gautamaka, 6, Maṇi, 7, Vāsuki, 8, Daṇḍapāda, 9, Pūrṇabhadra, 10, Nanda, 11, Upananda, 12, Anavatapta, 13, Varuṇa, 14, Sainhāraka, 15, Takshaka, 16, Ananta, 17, Vāsūmukha, 18, Aparājita, 19, Chhibbasuta, 20, Mahāmanasvin, 21, Manasvin, 22, Kālaka, 23, Apālāla, 24, Bhōgavān, 25, Śrāmaṇera, 26, Dadhimukha, 27, Maṇi, 28, Puṇḍarīka, 29, Karkōṭaka, 30, Saikhapāda, 31, Kaṇbala, 32, Aśvatara, 33, Sākētaka, 34, Kumbhīra, 35, Sūchilōma, 36, Ugātima, 37, Kāla, 38, Rishika, 39, Pūraṇa, 40, Karṇaka, 41, Śakaṭamukha, 42, Kōlaka, 43, Sunanda, 44, Vatsīputra, 45, Ēlapatra, 46, Lambura, 47, Pithila, 48, Muchilinda.

There are altogether 48 ; among them Nos. 8, 10 and 11 are expressly called Nāgas, and Nos. 6 and 22-32, Nāgarājas ; No. 47 is called a Mahānāga. The nature of the others is not specified, but they are, no doubt, all intended to be some species of Nāga. The *Vyutpatti* gives a list of 79 Nāgarājas, and 55 common Nāgas. Among the former occur Nos. 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 23, 29, 30, 31, 32, 37, 45, altogether 13, and four others (Nos. 21, 27, 40, 44) that are uncertain. Among the latter occur No. 22, and probably Nos. 2 and 19. The *Mahābhārata*, *Ādiparvan*, Chap. XXXV, (*P. Ch. Roy's* transl., p. 113) has a list of 78 Nāgas. Among these occur our Nos. 1, 6 (or 27), 9, 15, 18, 26, 29, 31, 32, 39, 45 and perhaps Nos. 2, 30, 36, altogether 14.

No. 1, Dhṛitarāshṭra is not mentioned by the *Vy.* among any of the Nāgas, but as the first in the list of Gandharvas ; nor is he accounted a Nāga by the Tibetan Lamas ; but in the *M. Bh.*, *Ch. S.*, the *P. Dy.*, and by Morris he is stated to be a Nāgarāja.

No. 2, Nairāvaṇa. At first I doubtfully suggested that this might be the same as Airāvaṇa. This view was supported by Professors Bühler, Leumann, and Stein, who took the initial *n* to be a connecting consonant (see *Vienna Oriental Journal*, Vol. V., p. 345). Nevertheless I now feel certain that Mr. Morris is correct in identifying Nairāvaṇa with Vaiśravaṇa (see *Academy*, Aug. 29, 1891, p. 179). In the first place, the use of *n* as a connecting consonant is very unusual ; in fact, I do not recollect ever having met with a well-authenticated instance. Next, as Mr. Morris points out, Dhṛitarāshṭra and Virūpāksha are respectively the regents of the East and West, and accordingly one expects Vaiśravaṇa, the regent of the North, in the place of Nairāvaṇa. Virūḍhaka, the regent of the South, is omitted, because he was not regarded as a snake-king, while all the three others were accounted Nāgarājas. The four Lōkapālas have their position at the entrance, *e. g.*, of a temple ; and the Nāgarājas among them may be expected to be invoked in the commencement of a spell. There is also sufficient suggestiveness in the similarity of the two names. Lastly, what seems to me decisive is that

⁷⁶ Svâhâ in such connections practically corresponds to our 'Amen.'

Airāvāṇa is actually invoked in the concluding part of the list, under the form of *Ēlāpatra*; see the note below on the latter name. It cannot be supposed that the same Nāgarāja would be invoked twice. I cannot account for the curious transformation of *Vaiśravaṇa* into *Nairāvāṇa*. It may be owing to a mere want of attention in the scribe, who confused *Vaiśravaṇa* with *Airāvāṇa*. The *M. Bh.*, l. c., however, enumerates both *Airāvata* and *Ēlāpatra*.

No. 3, Virūpāksha. In the *Vy.* he is not named among the Nāgas or Nāgarājas, nor indeed among any of the special classes of spiritual beings. The only place where he is named is in the general class of "the gods inhabiting this world." Among these "gods," No. 31 is Lōkapāla, No. 32 Vaiśravaṇa, No. 33 Dhṛitarāṣṭra, No. 34 Virūḍhaka, No. 35 Virūpāksha; and from among these No. 32 is again enumerated at the head of the Yakshas, No. 33 at the head of the Gandharvas, No. 34 at the head of the Kumbhāṇḍas; but No. 35 is not referred to any special class. These four, Nos. 32-35, as is well known, are considered to be the four "Guardians of the World" (*lōkapāla*). As such, "their frescoes are found in the verandah of every Lamaic temple or *gompa*; but none of them, not even Virūpāksha, is considered a Nāga, by any Lama" (*Wd.*). But among other Buddhists, Virūpāksha would seem to have been placed at the head of the Nāgas; see *P. Dy.* and Mr. Morris' note; and in the *Khandhavatta Jātaka* (Vol. I., p. 143) he is mentioned as one of the Nāgarājas. In any case, these facts would disprove any connection of our MS. with the Lamaism of Tibet. The list of names of the Lōkapālas, compared with the three first names in our list, is rather suggestive of *Nairāvāṇa* being a misspelling for or confusion with *Vaiśravaṇa*.

No. 4, Kṛishṇa and No. 5 Gautamaka "are mentioned in the *Divyāvadāna* as two snake kings" (Morris), also in the *Khandhavatta Jātaka* (Vol. I., p. 145). *P. Dy.* has Gautamaka.

Nos. 6 and 27 Maṇi. This name occurs twice. Whether by mistake, or as two different Nāgas? The *M. Bh.*, l. c., and *P. Dy.* give Maṇi.

No. 7, Vāsuki. *Vy.* spells Vāsukā; *Wd.* gives Basuga in one *Dharaṇi* and Bāsuki in another. Also in *Ch. S.*

No. 8, Daṇḍapāda is not mentioned anywhere.

No. 9, Pūrṇabhadra occurs in the *M. Bh.* He is also known to the Jains. The *P. Dy.* has him.

Nos. 10 and 11, Nanda and Upananda. "These Nāgarājas assisted the Dēvas in a struggle with the Asuras" (Morris). That struggle is narrated in the *Kulāvaka Jātaka* (Jat. I., p. 203, 204), where it is stated generally that the Uragas or Nāgas helped to guard Sakra's residence, but neither Nanda nor Upananda are named. The reference in our spell would seem to refer to an occasion where these two Nāgas distinguished themselves above the others. In the *Vy.*, Nanda is enumerated by himself as the 15th of the Nāgarājās, and again Nandōpananda is mentioned as the 50th among them. It is not clear in the latter place whether one or two Nāgas are meant. In our spell clearly two individuals are intended. The *Ch. S.* and *P. Dy.* give both. In *Wd.* lists there is an Upanta and an Unanta. See also (*Hiuen Tsiang*, Vol. II., p. 166, note 77).

No. 12, Anavatapta is the Nāgarāja of the Sarik-kul lake in the Himālayas, the source of the Ganges, Indus, Oxus and Zarafshan (*Hiuen Tsiang*, Vol. I., p. 11, 12). He is No. 13 in *Vy.* Also in the *Lalitā Vistara*, p. 249, 14. (*P. Dy.*), and in *Ch. S.*

No. 13, Varuṇa. In *Vy.* he is No. 9. Also in *P. Dy.* and *Ch. S.*

No. 14, Saṃhārakā. The *P. Dy.* gives Saṃhāra as the name of an Asura. Mr. Morris suggests a misreading for Sāṃgara = Sāgara, which is very improbable.

No. 15, Takshaka. *Vy.* No. 8, *M. Bh.*, l. c., No. 4, also in *P. Dy.* and *Ch. S.*

No. 16, Ananta. *Vy.* No. 7, also in *Wd.*, *P. Dy.*, *Pāli Dy.*

No. 17, Vāsumukha, not found anywhere else.

No. 18, Aparājita in the *M. Bh.*, l. c., also in *P. Dy.*

No. 19, Chhibbasuta, as Prof. Bühler first pointed out, is mentioned in the *Khandhavatta Jātaka* (Vol. I. p. 145) under the form Chhabhyā-putta. See Appendix II.

Nos. 20, and 21, Mahāmanasvin and Manasvin. The latter in *Ch. S.* and in *P. Dy.* The *Vy.* has Manasti (sic) as No. 57.

No. 22, Kālaka. The *Vy.* gives Kālaka as the 17th of the common Nāgas, and a Kālikô as the 31st of the Nāgarājas. The *P. Dy.* has it as the name of a Rākshasa and an Asura.

No. 23, Apalāla is mentioned by (*Hiuen Tsiang*, Vol. I., p. 122, 123, 126, note) as the Nāga of the spring which forms the source of the Swāt river in Udyāna. He was prevailed upon by Buddha to desist from annually inundating the country. He is No. 45 in *Vy.* In *P. Dy.* it is the name of a Rākshasa.

No. 24, Bhôgavan, according to *P. Dy.*, occurs in the *Suparnādhyāya*, p. 9, 1.

No. 25, Śrāmaṇera is probably the Nāgarāja whose story is told by (*Hiuen Tsiang*, Vol. I., p. 63, 64). He was originally a Śrāmaṇera, or Buddhist novice, but became the Nāga king of a lake on the summit of a snowy mountain in the Hindu Kush. The *Vy.* has a Śramaṇa as the 19th in the list of common Nāgas.

No. 26, Dadhimukha, in the *M. Bh.*, l. c., also according to the *P. Dy.*, in the *Harivaṇśa* (Calcutta ed.), v. 9503.

No. 28, Puṇḍarika, not mentioned elsewhere. The *Vy.*, however, has a Padma, as the 4th of the Nāgarājas.

No. 29, Karkôṭaka is No. 2 of the Nāgarājas in *Vy.* and No. 5 in the *M. Bh.*, l. c. *Wd.* gives Karākotaye in one *Dharaṇi* and Karkoṭa in another. The *P. Dy.* has it.

No. 30, Saṅkhapāda. The *Vy.* has 'Sankhapālo as the first of the Nāgarājas; there is also a 'Sankho as No. 22. *Wd.* gives "Shangkapāla" in all *Dharaṇis*. It can hardly be doubted that all these are intended for the same name. The *M. Bh.*, l. c., has Saṅkhapīṇḍa.

Nos. 31 and 32, Kambala and Āsvatara are enumerated in the *Vy.* under one No. 65, though stated to be two separate Nāgarājas. They are Nos. 34, 35 in the *M. Bh.*, l. c. The *Pāli Dy.* has Kambala.

No. 33, Sākêṭaka is not found elsewhere. It might be not a name, but an epithet of No. 34 Kumbhîra, meaning 'a native of the town of Sākêṭa' (= Ayôdhya in Oudh), and if all these names are those of sacred springs, we should here have the name of a spring in the centre of North India. It is just possible that the name may be Sām̐kêṭaka: but the apparent anusvāra is attached to the foot of the letter in the line above sākêṭaka, and is, in all probability, part of that letter.

No. 34, Kumbhîra is, in *Hiuen Tsiang*, Vol. II., p. 49, the name of several Nāgas of pools near Benares. In the *P. Dy.* it is the name of a Yaksha.

No. 35, Sûchîlôma occurs in No. 74 of the inscriptions on the Bharaut Stûpa as the name of a Yaksha (see *ante*, Vol. XXL, p. 233).

No. 36, Ugâtima. *Wd.* gives Ugate. The *M. Bh.*, l. c., has Ugraka. See note 70.

No. 37, Kāla is the 24th Nāgarāja in *Vy.* He stood before Buddha and sang his praises just before his contest with Māra (*Nidāna Kathā*, p. 97, in Rhys Davids' *Buddhist Birth Stories*). Also in *P. Dy.* and *Pāli Dy.* (s. v. Nāgo).

No. 38, Rishika; not found elsewhere.

No. 39, Pûraṇa is No. 9 in the *M. Bh.*, l. c. The *P. Dy.* quotes a Nāga Pûraṇaka from the *Harivaṇśa* (Calcutta ed.), v. 9502.

Nos. 40-43. Karṇaka, Sakatamukha, Kôlaka, Sunanda are not found elsewhere. The *Vy.*, however, gives Kulika, as the name of the 3rd Nāgarāja.

No. 44, Vatsîputra, also spelled Vātsîputra, and quoted by the *P. Dy.*, as the name of a Nāga, from the *Kāraṇḍa Vyūha* 2, 13.

No. 45, Īlapatra, also spelled Īlāpatra. With the latter spelling it occurs as the name of the 43rd Nāgarāja in *Vy.*, and as No. 11 in the *M. Bh.*, l. c.; also in *Ch. S.* and *P. Dy.* Another spelling is Ērāpata (in *Skr. Airāvata*) or Ērāpatha, with the conjunct *tr* simplified into *t* or *th*

(as in *ētha* for *atra*). The former (with *t*) occurs in Nos. 59 and 60 of the inscriptions on the Bharaut Stūpa (see *ante*, Vol. X., p. 258 and Vol. XXI, p. 232). The other (with *th*) is the commoner one, and occurs in the *Khandhavatta Jātaka* (Vol. I., p. 145); see also *Pāli Dy.*, s. v. Nāgo. A third spelling is *Ēlāpana* or *Ērāvāṇa*, of which the former is given by Mr. Morris from *Ch. S.*, while the other corresponds to the Sanskrit form *Airāvāṇa*. There was a Nāgarāja of this name both near Takshaṣilā and Banāras, see *Hien Tsiang*, Vol. I., p. LXVIII. and p. 137.

No. 46. Lambura may be the Nāgarāja of the lake on the crest of the mountain of "Lan-po-lu," in Udyāna, whose story is given by (*Hien Tsiang*, Vol. I. p. 128 ff). *Vy.* gives *Lambuka* as the name of the 12th Nāgarāja (also in the *P. Dy.*)

No. 47. Pithila, not found elsewhere.

No. 48. Muchilinda, (or Muchalinda), was the blind Nāga king of the Mandākinī lake near Gayā, who, after Buddha's enlightenment, shielded him in seven folds during a storm (*Hien Tsiang*, Vol. I., p. LXIII., Vol. II., 128, *Nidāna Kathā*, p. 109). Also in *Ch. S.*, *P. Dy.* and *Pāli Dy.*

II.—**Black Nāgas.** Dr. Waddell informs me that the Nāgas invoked in Tibetan rain-charms are of three kinds: white, black, and angry. The names of the black and the angry Nāgas are mostly such unintelligible words, as *Hili*, *Mili*, *Jala*, &c. Many of these occur in our spell. I believe they are really mere unintelligible jargon, interspersed here and there with a real name, such as *Pāmsu-pisāchini*, or a real word, such as *gōlāya*. It was only pedantic subtlety that made them into names of Nāgas. In the *Krahaṃanta-nḍma Dharaṇī* occur the following names of black Nāgas: *Limi Limi*, *Hili Hili*, *Tsili Tsili*, *Jala Jala*, *Putā Putā*, *Brara Brara*, *Kuti Kuti* (*Wd.*). In another *Dharaṇī* are found the following angry Nāgas: *Mili*, *Hili*, *Jala*, *Putā*, *Brara*, *Kuti*, *Takra*, *Hala*, *Hulu*, *Siti*, *Kuru*, *Egate*, *Arare*, *Madhaye*, *Patini*, *Apare*, *Shibate*, *Ture*. Of these *Hili*, *Jala*, *Mili* also occur in our spell; and *Tsili*, *Brara*, *Hulu*, *Kuru*, *Arare* may be respectively compared with our *Chula*, *Baba*, *Huhu*, *Kulu* or *Kōlu*, *Aḍē*. A few unintelligible names are also given in the *Vyutpatti* among those of the Nāgarājas: thus its No. 36 *Ēḍā*, No. 51 *Huluḍo*, No. 52 *Ulukō*, No. 71 *Dramadro*. With these may be compared our *Ēlā*, *Huhu*, *Duma* or *Dumba* or *Dōdumbā*.

Dr. Waddell gives me from the *Klu-i-sde* or 'classes of Nāgas' in the *Mdo-mang* or 'collection of sūtras' the following list of Nāga kings and Nāgas:—

"Om Nāgarāja Ananta svāhā! Nāgarāja Upanata, Takshaka, Karkota, Ulika, Anantā, Basuki, Muliki, Shangkapāla, Panaye, Kanale, Babute. Om murzang Nāga Gayuna, Nāgarāja Ugate, Nāga Mujiki, Majalasho, Prashanaye, Nāga Garuneye svāhā; Dukuri svāhā; Shona Mujalasho, Prashona, Kurūṇi, Dukari (No. 2), Marūṇi, Debaya, Gayu, Bhanajayu, Bayuma, Ragashayu, Ratsayu, Debayu, Nāgarāja Yu, Nāga Naṭe, Nāgarāja Debayu, Ja hung bam ho! Nāgarāja Ye svāhā! Nāgarāja Naye, Nāga Ragashaye, Yunaye, Upaye, Ghanagudeye. Om Nāgarāja Ananta Svāhā! Nāgarāja Unanta, Upanatana, Tagnan svāhā! Nāgarāja Karkōta, Ulika, Bāsuki, Mulika, Shangkala, Nāga Kili kili svāhā! Mili mili svāhā! Jala, jala; Pata pata, Dhama dhama, Bhara bhara, Kuti kuti, Hara hara, Tara tara, Hula hula, Hulu hulu, Siti siti, Svati svati, svāhā! Nāga Guru guru svāhā! Agete, Arate, Murate, Badane, Aparā, Shabde svāhā! Turi turi, Buri buri, Hutse hutse svāhā! Salutation to all the Nāga kings, including Ananda!"

III.—**Dēvis or Nāgis.** Of the 10 names mentioned on fl. IIIa¹ I have only noticed one which is similar in Dr. Waddell's list. It is *Patini*, which appears, however, as the name of an angry Nāga, in a *Dharaṇī* of the latter Nāgas. The *Vyutpatti* gives no list of names of Dēvis or Nāgis.

IV.—**Grahas or Seizures.** Twenty-one are enumerated in our MS.: 1, *Dēva*, 2, *Nāga*, 3, *Asura*, 4, *Maruta*, 5, *Garuḍa*, 6, *Gandharva*, 7, *Kinnara*, 8, *Mahōraga*, 9, *Yaksha*, 10, *Rākshasa*, 11, *Prēta*, 12, *Pisācha*, 13, *Bhūta*, 14, *Kumbhāṇḍa*, 15, *Pūtana*, 16, *Kaṭapūtana*, 17, *Skanda*, 18, *Unmīda*, 19, *Ohhāyā*, 20, *Apasmāra*, 21, *Dustāraka*. Nearly the same list is given in the *Vyutpatti*: the nine first mentioned, together with No. 14 *Kumbhāṇḍa* constitute its entire 156th chapter of names of supernatural beings, *viz.*, 1, *Dēva*, 2, *Nāga*, 3, *Yaksha*, 4,

Gandharva, 5, Asura, 6, Daitya (instead of our Maruta), 7, Garuḍa, 8, Kinnara, 9, Mahōraga, 10, Kumbhāṇḍa. The remainder, with the exception of Dustāraka, are mentioned in the 200th chapter on the Yidags or 'evil spirits,' in nearly the same order: Prēta, Kumbhāṇḍa (here again enumerated), Piśācha, Bhūta, Pātana, Kaṭapātana, Unmāda, Skanda, Apasmāra, Chhayā, Rakshasa. Skanda is here explained to mean an evil spirit that "makes dry or causes consumption," and Chhayā (spelled thus), one that "causes defilement." In the *Suśruta* (*Uttara-śāstra*, chapter 27), however, Skanda is said to be the Grahādhipati, or 'Chief of the Grahas' which affect children. In the *Suśruta* and the *Vaṅgasēna* (p. 910), *skanda-graha* is explained as 'convulsions' (*gātrasya spandana-kampanam*, and *sakrabūhaḥ kara-charaṇais=cha nrityati*), &c. *Chhayā* is generally said to mean 'nightmare.' *Unmāda* 'mania' and *apasmāra* 'epilepsy' are treated in the *Charaka* and other medical books as ordinary diseases. After the *grahas* the spell proceeds to mention ordinary ills or diseases.

APPENDIX II.

The Khandavatta Jātaka.

There is such a remarkable agreement of portions of this *Jātaka* with the story of our MS. that a translation of the substance of it may be welcome for comparison.⁷⁶

The commentary of the *Jātaka* narrates the occasion of giving it thus :

The Master related this *Jātaka* concerning a certain monk, while he was staying in Jētavana. That monk was chopping wood at the door of the firing-room (*janāghara-dvārā*), when he was bitten in a toe (*pādāṅguḷiya*) by a snake which came from out a Pūti tree (*pūtirukkh-antarā*); and he died then and there. The fact of his death became known in the whole monastery. In the religious assembly the monks began to discuss the occurrence among themselves. The Master on entering asked them what they were talking about; and when he was told what it was, he said to the monks: "if that monk had cultivated the friendship of the four snake-kings and their races, the snake would not have bitten him: for Buddha in a former ascetic existence cultivated the friendship of the four snake-kings and their races, and thus, so far as those snake-kings were concerned, he was not exposed to the risk of a re-birth (through being bitten to death by a snake)." He then proceeded to relate the following legend :

In the past, when Brahmadaṭṭa was king of Banāras, the Bōdhisattva was born in the family of a Kāśī Brāhman; but when he came of age, he retired from the world and made for himself a hermitage in a bend of the Ganges in the interior of the Himālayas, where, in the company of other Rishis, he devoted himself to a life of meditation. That place was infested by snakes of various sorts, and in consequence the death of a Rishi was a thing of frequent occurrence. The ascetics represented this state of things to the Bōdhisattva. He advised them that they should cultivate the friendship of the four Snake-kings and their races, then no snake would bite them; and for this purpose he taught them the following gāthā (*ślōka*) verses :

- 1, Virūpakkhēhi⁷⁷ mē mettāṃ mettāṃ Brāpathēhi mē !
Oḥhabyāpattēhi mē mettāṃ mettāṃ Kanhā-Gōtamakēhi cha ||
- 2, Apādakēhi mē mettāṃ mettāṃ dipādakēhi mē !
chatuppadēhi mē mettāṃ mettāṃ bahuppadēhi mē ||
- 3, Mā maṃ apādakō hiṃsi mā maṃ hiṃsi dipādakō !
mā maṃ chatuppadō hiṃsi mā maṃ hiṃsi bahuppadō ||
- 4, Sabbē sattā sabbē pāṇā sabbē bhūtā cha kēvalā !
sabbē bhadrāṇi passanti mā kṛṇ=chi pāpaṃ āgamā ||

⁷⁶ There appears to be a similar passage in the *Chulavagga* V, 6 (see *Jōt.*, Introd., p. LII. and *Academy*, 29th August 1891, p. 178), but that book has not been accessible to me here (Darjeeling).

⁷⁷ This and the other plurals are explained in the Pāli commentary to include the races (*kula*) of the respective Snake-kings. The Tibetan *Vyutpatti* gives Dhrtarāshtra as the first, or at the head, of the race of (eleven) Can dharvas, and places Śaṅkhayāla as the first, or at the head, of the Nāgajājas. See Appendix I.

i. e. "With the race of Virūpāksha I keep friendship, and friendship with the race of Ērāpatha; with the race of Chhabbyāputta I keep friendship, and with the race of Kṛishṇa and Gōtamaka. (2) With the footless I keep friendship, and friendship with the two-footed; with the four-footed I keep friendship, and friendship with the many-footed. (3) Let not the footless harm me, nor harm me the two-footed; let not the four-footed harm me, nor harm me the many-footed. (4) All that exist, all that live, all that will live hereafter, one and all, may they experience the good things, may none of them fall into sin."

Buddha explained to them that by the first verse they would establish friendship with the four Nāgarājas and their races, and by the second, with snakes and fishes, men and birds, elephants, horses and all other quadrupeds, scorpions, centipedes and other multipedes, and thus they would become proof against being bitten or injured by any of them. The third would serve them as a request, by reason of that friendship, to be saved from all danger from those different classes of beings. The fourth would show their feeling of goodwill to all creatures.

He then proceeded to explain how all safety (*parittā*) was ultimately to be ascribed to the transcendent power of the three gems, Buddha, Dharma and Sangha, and concluded by teaching them the following hymn:

"My safety is secured, my protection is secured!
Let all creatures leave me in peace!
So I will praise the Blessed One;
I will praise all that through him are saved!"

In this manner the company of Rishis found protection; and thenceforward, by the virtue of the charm taught by the Bōdhisattva, the snakes left them in peace. The Bōdhisattva himself in due time went to heaven.

The incident related in the *Jātaka* book is clearly the same as that narrated in our Manuscript. But what is there given in the form of a *Jātaka*, an incident from a former existence of Buddha, is here related as an Avadāna, an incident from his last existence. There the monk (Svāti) is represented as dead, and the spell as having been given on a long-past occasion. Here Svāti is represented as only being near death, and as going to be saved by the spell given on that very occasion. The spell, moreover, is here given in a very expanded form. To the first verse of the spell in the *Jātaka* correspond ten verses (1—10) in our MS.; to the second and third verses there, correspond five verses (11—15) here, while the fourth verse there, corresponds to the sixteenth verse here.

Some portions of the spell in our Manuscript look very much like direct translations from the Pāli. Our verses 12b, 13, 14a and 16 are Sanskrit versions of verses 2, 3, 4 in the *Jātaka*. Verse 13a has actually preserved, in *hisist*, a fragment of the original Pāli. But the different wording of verse 16a would seem to show that the Sanskrit version in our Manuscript is based on a Pāli recension different from that contained in the Southern Buddhist *Jātaka* book.

Other Pāli fragments are scattered, here and there, through the whole of our Sanskrit version; thus we have *karōhi* on fl. Ib² and *tēhi* on fl. IIIb⁶. This would seem to indicate that the Northern Buddhism possessed an original Pāli recension co-extensive with the Sanskrit recension in our Manuscript.

To my mind, the transformation of the story from a *Jātaka* to an Avadāna form, as well as its expansion in the latter form, is an evidence of the story in this form being of a later age than that in the *Jātaka* book. This in itself is an evidence of the genuineness and the antiquity of the story in the *Jātaka* form as preserved by the Southern Buddhists of Ceylon.

APPENDIX III.

The Mahāmāyūri Spell.

I was at first disposed to suggest that this spell may have received its name *Mahā-māyūri* from the fact, that some part of the peafowl (*mayūra*) was used along with it. As a matter of

fact the quills of its tail-feathers, or its feet, burned and powdered, and its bile, form the ingredients of several medicines and antidotes prescribed in the older Indian medical works. Thus a powder containing burned quills (*śikhi-nāḍaṁ dagdham*) occurs in the larger medical treatise of the Bower MS. on fl. I 62. A very similar powder or tincture is given in the *Charaka*, p. 726 (*mayūra-nāḍaṁ dagdhvā*), in the *Suśruta*, p. 850 (*barhi-patra-prasutāṁ bhasma*, i. e., 'ashes of peacock-feathers'), in the *Vangasēna*, p. 288 (*barhi-pāḍau dagdharu* i. e. 'burned peacock's feet'), and in the *Chakradatta*, p. 277 (*śikhi-puchokha-bhūti*, i. e., 'ashes of peacock's tail-feathers').⁷⁸ This, however, is not prescribed as an antidote; but an antidote against snake-poison, containing the powdered quills of the tail-feathers of the peacock (*śikhi-barha*) is given in the *Charaka*, p. 764. This powder is to be mixed with clarified butter and set fire to: and with it one's house, bed, and clothes are to be fumigated. Again in *Charaka*, p. 774, the broth (*rasa*) and tail-feathers (*pārshata*)⁷⁹ of the peafowl, in *Charaka*, p. 760 its bile (*śikhi-pitta*), and in *Charaka*, p. 773, its eggs (*barhiṇ-āṇḍa*) are prescribed to be taken, with other things, as an antidote against snake-poison, and in *Charaka*, p. 776, the peafowl is, therefore, directed to be kept on one's premises. Similar prescriptions occur in the *Suśruta*; see, e. g., p. 632, 650, and in the *Vangasēna*, p. 935 (*mayūra-pitta*, i. e., bile of a peacock). I cannot find any such prescriptions in the *Ashtāṅga Hṛidaya*.

But while searching for these references, I came across a much more curious circumstance. The *Charaka* describes an antidote against the poison of snakes as well as poisons generally, which exhibits some striking features resembling those of the spell in our manuscript. It is given on pages 762—764.⁸⁰ It is called the *Mahā-gandhahastī* (lit. 'the great scent-elephant'), and is described as very powerful. This antidote consists of 60 drugs which are to be made up with the bile of cows (*pittena gavām*) into pills (*guḍikā*) for internal, or into a liniment (*pralēpa*) for external use. Used internally, the patient will quickly recover from poisoning; if applied externally, a person will be proof against poison, he may handle snakes or eat poison without any risk. It may also be smeared on various musical instruments and these sounded, or on umbrellas or flags, and these exhibited; in that case, they will act as a protection against infantine seizure (*bāla-graha*), *khārkhūṭa*,⁸¹ witchcraft, *Vētālas*, magic spells (*atharvaṇā mantrāḥ*), every kind of seizure (*sarva-graha*), fire-arms (*agni-śāstra*), kings (*nṛipa*) and robbers (*chaurā*). In short there will be prosperity, whenever this antidote is present. During the process of grinding its ingredients, the following spell (*māntṛa*) should be pronounced:—

"To my mother success and glory! success and glory to my father! To me success, to my son success, may I be successful! Reverence to the Perfect (*Purusha-simha*) Viṣṇu, the Creator (*viśvakarman*), the Eternal Kṛishṇa who upholds and renews the world! may his wonderful control be at once seen over Vṛishākapi,⁸² Brahma and Indra, so that I may not witness the discomfiture of Vāsudēva, nor the marriage of my mother, nor the drying up of the ocean. May this antidote be made efficacious by means of this true spell! Hili, Mili! With this all-healing powder protect me! Svāhā!"

What appears to be intended for the same antidote is given in the *Suśruta*, p. 641, 642, under the name *Mahā-sugandhī* ('the great sweet-scented one'), but it is made to consist of 85 ingredients. It is given as one of those antidotes, which are "to be sounded with drums" (*duṇḍubhī-svanīya*). On p. 629 the *Suśruta* says, that drums (*duṇḍubhī*) which are smeared with an antidote, are to be sounded in the presence of the patient (see also p. 633). There is this difference, however, that the *Suśruta* prescribes no particular spell to be said during the preparation of the *Mahā-sugandhī* antidote.

⁷⁸ I quote Jivānanda's editions of the *Charaka* and *Suśruta*. The editions of the *Vangasēna* and *Chakradatta* are specified in my first instalment, in *Journal As. Soc. Beng.*, Vol. XL., p. 149, 150.

⁷⁹ *Pārshata* means the "parti-coloured part," and is in that place of the *Charaka* applied to the skin of the antelope (*śaṇa*), the feathers of the peafowl, quail and partridge (*śikhiṇ, lāva, tāṭṭiri*), and the bristles of the porcupine (*vāvidh*).

⁸⁰ In the Bengālī edition, it is in Vol. III., pp. 495, 496.

⁸¹ For this the Bengālī recension reads *rakshasī* 'Rākshasas,' and for *Vētālas* it reads *mantrā* 'spells.'

⁸² The Beng. recension reads *viśha-kehayā* 'wonderful in its destruction of poison.'

Further, the *Ashṭāṅga Hṛidaya* gives an antidote under the name of *Chandrôdaya* ('moon-rise'), which it praises as a most excellent protection against poisons of every kind, as well as against Vetâlas, seizures, witch-craft, *pâpma* ('disaster'), plague, disease, famine, and war. It is made up of 28 drugs mixed in honey, and is to be applied to the patient by a pure virgin, while the physician is to pronounce the following spell during the process of preparing and applying it:—

"Reverence to the Purusha-simha! reverence to Nârâyana! So may I not witness the discomfiture of Kṛishṇa in the strife! May through this true spell my antidote be made efficacious! Huhu, Huhu! Protect me from all poisons, O Gauri, Gāndhârî, Chaṇḍâlî, Mâtangî! Svâhâ!"

It appears that according to the *Charaka* and *Suśruta*, spells (*mantra*) are to be used along with important operations in cases of poisoning. But the *Suśruta*, on p. 626, prescribes this expressly at the time of the application of the ligature to the bitten part. That operation is called the *ariṣṭā-bandhana* or *dhamanī-bandha* (*Chakradatta*, p. 689). It is the first thing to be done, and is afterwards followed by the administration of antidotes. In the preparation or administration of the latter, the use of a spell was not prescribed. Out of a very large number of antidotes, the *Mahā-gandhahastî* and the *Chandrôdaya* are the only two to which spells are annexed, which circumstance would show that they were exceptions, being considered antidotes of magical efficacy.

Now there are three points to be noted. In the first place, the spell in our Manuscript is clearly intended to be a spell to be used at the time of tying the ligature. This is shown by the direction: *simā-bandhaṁ dharaṇī-bandhaṁ karôhi*, 'apply a ligature to the wound and to the vein,' followed by the spell. I do not now, therefore, think it probable, that the spell had its name of *Mahā māyūrî* from any ingredient in an antidote used along with the spell. An additional reason is that there is no indication in the spell and its story of the use of any antidote.

In the second place: there is a considerable resemblance in the enumeration of evils which the spell is supposed to counteract, as given in our Manuscript and in the *Charaka* and the *Ashṭāṅga Hṛidaya*. This is shown in the following table:—

Bower MS.	Charaka.	Ashṭāṅga.
1. Graha (21 kinds).	{ bāla-graha. sarva-graha.	graha.
2. Kṛityā-karman.	kārmaṇa.	kārmaṇa.
3. Kavkhôrd-ôkirapa.	khârkhôda.	pâpman.
4. Vêtâḍa, &c.	Vêtâla.	Vêtâla.
5. Durbhukta, &c.		dur-bhiksha.
6. Jvara, &c.		maraka.
7. rôga (various).		vyâdhi.

The *Charaka* and *Ashṭāṅga* add a few other ills, such as war, oppression and robbery, but these are covered by the second list of evils at the end of our spell. It seems to me impossible to avoid the impression that there is some connection between the three versions.

In the third place: there is a curious verbal coincidence between the word *khârkhôḍa* in the *Charaka* and *kavkhôrda* in our MS. The abridged Petersburg Dictionary gives a various reading *khârkhôda*. The word appears to have been unintelligible in later times; for the *Ashṭāṅga Hṛidaya* substitutes *pâpman*, and the Bengâlî edition of the *Charaka*, *rakshâmsi*. It is, so far as I know, only known to occur in one other place; viz., in the *Rājataranginî*, V. 239 (in Dr. Stein's new edition). There it is related that the treasurer of king Gopâla Varman, in order to conceal his delinquencies, caused a person Râmadêva, who was a proficient in *khâr-khôḍa*, to compass the death of the king by his sorcery (*abhîchâra*). This story shows, that by

khārkhōda a deadly kind of charm was understood. While preparing the present instalment, however, I have received another ancient manuscript; and in this I have been lucky enough to discover the same word in two places. The manuscript was dug out of a ruined house, near the town of Kugiar, not far from the Yarkand frontier. It is written on Daphne paper, and contains apparently six or seven separate treatises. These are written in two entirely different types of characters. One portion is written in the well-known North-Indian Gupta characters, very closely resembling those in the Bower MS.; but the other portion is written in the Central-Asian type of characters, a specimen of which has lately been published by Mr. S. d'Oldenburg in the *Records of the Oriental Transactions* of the Imperial Russian Archaeological Society, Vol. VII. 81-82. These latter have a close resemblance to the so-called "Wartu" characters, which are said to have been brought into Tibet early in the seventh century A.D. from Liyul or Khoten.⁸³ One of the treatises of this second portion, in the Central-Asian characters, contains the story of a charm, apparently given by Buddha to a Senāpati. In it the word, which is here spelled *kakkhōrda* or *kākkhōrda*, occurs twice. Unfortunately the manuscript is much mutilated; but the better preserved of the two passages runs thus; . . . *daṇḍēna parimuchchishyati . . . ēvam=ēva parimu(chch)[ishyati] . . . śastra[nh] kramati na viśhā n=āgnī n=dāt-vishā⁸⁴ na kakkhōrda na Vaitāla na (ma)[hāba]lanh karōti*, i.e., "he will be delivered from danger by . . . , even so he will be delivered . . . , no weapon hurts (him), no poison, no fire, no snake-poison, no *kakkhōrda*, no Vaitāla, no has any overpowering effect." The other passage has . . . *kṛitya-kākkhōrda-putanaiḥ [parimuchchish]yati*, i.e., "he will be delivered from witchcraft (or demons who dig out corpses), *kākkhōrda* and Pūtanās (=Vaitālas)." The spelling slightly differs; the first passage spells the word with a short *a*, the second with a long *ā*. The dental *d* (not cerebral *ḍ*), and the position of *r* in the second syllable (not in the first) would now seem to be the correct spelling. The variation in the spelling of the initial letter (*k* or *kh*) is possible; a similar instance is *kakhaṭa* and *khakhaṭa* 'hard,' both given in the Petersburg Dictionary. The spelling *kavkhōrda* in the Bower Manuscript I take to be a clerical error for *kakkhōrda*; the *v* is not well made.

There is another curious verbal coincidence in the word *śānti-svastyāyanam* 'mystic spell for recovery,' which is used both in our Manuscript and the *Ashṭāṅga Hridaya*. The latter applies this term to the *Chandrōdaya* spell, which I have above quoted as parallel to our *Mahāmāyūrī* spell.

WEBER'S SACRED LITERATURE OF THE JAINS.

TRANSLATED BY DR. HERBERT WEIR SMYTH.

(Concluded from page 156.)

XLVI. Fourth mūlasūtram, piṇḍaniryukti. There is no text of this name in Berlin. We find MSS. of it mentioned in Kielhorn (Report 1881) pp. 9, 26—29, 95, and Peterson's Palm-leaf 166.⁸¹ According to what I have cited on page 79 from the Vidhiprapā, [81] the piṇḍan. is connected with the fifth chapter of the third mūlasūtra. It is surprising that a niryukti text should appear as a part of the Siddh., (see above p. 41). It deserves to be noticed that the piṇḍan. is not mentioned in the anaṅgapavitṭha list of the Nandi (see p. 11 ff). In the list of Rāj. L. Mitra and Kāśīnāth Kuntē piṇḍaniryukti appears as the name of their fourth chhēdasūtra; Kāśīnāth says that its contents is "on the cause of hunger and the nature and kind of food to be taken." A piṇḍaniryuktivṛitti is ascribed to the old Haribhadra (see p. 458ⁿ). Kielhorn, l. c., cites a vṛitti of Vīragana, (see above pp. 44, 51). According to his account its extent is 61 leaves, four or five lines on a page, each line 50 aksh. and in all about 900 ślokaś.

⁸³ This appears to be the correct Tibetan tradition, as Babu S. C. Dās now informs me. They were not brought from Magadha. See *Journal*, As. Soc. Bengal, Vol. LVII., Part I., p. 41.

⁸⁴ *Āṭ* is a serpent's fang; in the abridged Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

⁸¹ It begins according to Peterson as follows:—piṇḍa uggamaṇ uppāyaṇaṇaṇa saṁjōgaṇappamāpeyaṇa, and concludes: nijjaraphalā ajjhatthā viśāhijuttassa.

we do not possess any of the immediate sources whence they are taken. [84] *À propos* of v. 1 several interesting statements are made concerning the relations of the *daśapūrvin* to the *chaturdaśapūrvin* (*trayōdaśapūrvinaḥ* are said to have never existed). The *daśap.* are said to be *upakārakāḥ*, *upāṅgādi*(*dīnām* C)-*saṁgrahanyuparacanēna* ('*nēna* *hētunā* C).

I have found no other trace of the *dāvavijjiyā*, see p. 431 cited in the *Ratnasāgara* as the sixth *pañnam*. The *jyōtiṣhkarauḍam* which is the ninth *pañnam* in the *Ratnasāgara* is at least mentioned in the *pañna* list in *Āvi.*, see p. 427.

As regards the texts enumerated by Rājendra Lāla Mitra and Kāśīnāth Kuntē, I refer to pages 392 and 11 for the *mahāpannavamā* mentioned by K. K. as the sixth *upāṅgam*.

In both the above authorities we find the second *mūlasūtram* called *viśeshāvaśyakasūtra*; and a text of this name exists according to Kielhorn's Report, pp. 36 to 38. In the beginning of Ratnasekhara's commentary on the *śrāddhapratikramasūtra* it is cited as a work of a Jinabhadra (see above p. 70): *yad āhuḥ śrī Jinabhadraganikṣhamāśramanapādāḥ śrī viśeshāvaśyakē* (then two *gāthās* in *Prākṛit*). According to Klatt 247^b and Kielhorn, p. 37 Jinabhadra is merely author of a commentary on this work. A *ṭikā* by Kotyāchārya is cited by Kielhorn, the MS. dating *saṁvat* 1138 (A. D. 1082). According to Klatt Kotyāchārya is another appellation of Śilāṅka, whose commentary on *aṅga* 1, see p. 230 dates A. D. 876. Kielhorn mentions [85] an anonymous commentary on the text itself, which bears the much sought for name *śiṣhyahitā* (see pp. 44, 51, 81). This MS., too, is very old *saṁvat* 119—(?) *i. e.* dates at least from A. D. 1134. The *viśeshāvaśyakam* is often cited in the *Vichārāmṛitasamgraha*. According to Kāśīnāth Kuntē it contains "a detailed explanation of what is written in the *Āvaśyaka Sūtra*."

The fourth *mūlasūtram* in the list of Rājendra Lāla Mitra, by name *pākshikasūtram*, contains (with some independent additions) the same enumeration of the *aṅgabāhira* texts, etc., which is found in the *Nandi*. See p. 10 ff. According to an introduction¹⁰⁰ consisting of 4 *gāthās* it deals in prose especially with the 5 *mahāvayās* to which as the sixth the *rālbhōyanā vēramāgam* is joined. See p. 78. Then follows a metrical discussion of the same subject in 41 (18, 7 and 23) *āryā*. Thereupon (*ēśā* *khalu mahāvayā-uchchāraṇā kayā*, *ichhāmo suttakittapaṇā¹ kāuṁ*) reverential salutations (*nama*) for the *khamāsamāṇā* by which partly *imaṁ vāiyam chhavvimaṁ āvassayam bhagavantaṁ*, partly: *imaṁ vāiyam aṅgabāhiraṁ kāliyam*, or *ukkāliyam*, *bhagavantaṁ*, and partly: *imaṁ vaiyam duvālasaṅgaṁ gaṇipidagam*. According to Kāśīnāth Kuntē the work gives "an account of all what is to be done by the *Sādhus* in every fortnight." Perhaps the name is derived from the fact that it is to be recited every fortnight.

[86] The work stated to be the third member in the group of *Kalpasūtras* and which has the specific title *Kalpasūtram* is, according to the statements in *Kaś.* the text which claims this title *kar' ēḥoxṛ*. It appears as the *daśā* section of the fourth *chhēdasūtra*.

The first three members of the group of "*Chhēdasūtras*" in *Rāj. L. M.* cf. p. 227: — the *bṛihat*-, *laghu*- and *madhyama-vāchanā* of the *mahānīṣītha*, are stated by Kāśīnāth to "treat of the penances to be performed by the *Sādhus* in a detailed, abridged and middling manner respectively." I have not found any other mention of this work.

The sixth member of the same group *paryuṣaṇākalpa*, contains, according to Kāśīnāth: "directions as to the manner of observing fasts and hearing the *Kalpa Sūtra* from the twelfth day of *Bhādon* [*Bhādrapada*] *Badi* (dark fortnight)² to the 4th or 5th day of *Bhādon Sudi* (lunar, *i. e.* light, fortnight)." Is this the *paryuṣaṇākalpanijjuttī* in 66 *āryā* belonging to the

¹⁰⁰ The first verse: *tittṭhamaṇe atittṭhe atittṭhasiddhā ya tittṭhasiddhā ya | . . vaṇḍāmi || 1 ||* glorifies strangely enough the *atittṭha*, or *atittṭhasiddhā* too. According to an *avachūri* on it this refers to the *dharmaavyavachhēna* "*Suviddhiprabhīritināṁ tittṭhakṛtāṁ saptaśy antareṣu*," see p. 211 fg. 242, 348.

¹ *śrutotkīrtanam* in the *avachūri*, perhaps *sutaki*°.

² *badi*, *bahuladina*, as *sudi*, instead of *śudi*, *suddhadina* (or *śukladina*). See my treatise on the *Kṛishna-janmāṣṭami* p. 350n.

third part of "Kalpasūtra" (Jacobi, pp. 86—95)? This paryush. was commented on (see p. 476) by Jinaprabha at the end of his saṃdēhavishashadhi.

See p. 82 on *auḡhaniryukti* and pp. 427, 429 on *maraṇasamādhī*.

I give in conclusion a list of the texts which are either found in the Siddhānta itself (1—29), or are mentioned elsewhere (30 fg.) as belonging to the Siddh. but which at present are no longer extant, at least as independent texts.

[87] 1. *divasāgarapannatti*, āṅga 3, 3, 1, 4, 1, see pp. 268, 389, also in the *pāṇṇa* list in *Āvi.* see pp. 427, 429 (where there is but one *saṃgahaṇī* on it).

2. *kammavivāgadasāu*,³ ten *ajjhayaṇas*, āṅga 3, 10,⁴ see p. 270; cf. Nos. 7, 10.

3. *baṃdhadasāu*, ten *ajjh.*, āṅga 3, 10, see p. 273.

4. *dōgiddhidasāu*, ten *ajjh.*, *ibid.*

5. *dīhadasāu*, ten *ajjh.*, *ibid.* (cf. up. 8—12).

6. *saṃkhēviyadasāu*, *ibid.*, ten *ajjh.* viz.: — 1. *khuddiyā vimāṇapavibhatti*, 2. *mahalliyā vim.*, 3. *aṃgachūliyā*, 4. *vaggachūliyā*, 5. *vivāhachūliyā*, 6. *Araṇḍavavāḍ*, 7. *Varaṇḍavavāḍ* (Dha²), 8. *Garulōvavāḍ*, 9. *Vēlaṃdharōvavāḍ*, 10. *Vēsamanōvavāḍ*. All these titles recur in essentially the same order in the *Nandī* among the *aṇaṃgapaviṭṭha* text, group *kāliya*; see pp. 13, 14. In the *kārikās* quoted on pp. 223, 224 we find the statement that 1—5 belong to the fifth, and 6—10 to the twelfth year of study.

7. *kammavivāgajjhayaṇa*, āṅga 4, 48, see p. 280; cf. Nos. 2, 10.

8. *isibhāsiyā dēvalōgachuyabhāsiyā*, 44 *ajjh.*, āṅga 4, 44; the *isibhāsiyā* also in the *Nandī* in the list of *aṇaṃgapaviṭṭha* texts; see pp. 280, 289, 272, 402, 419, 438, 442, above pp. 13, 57, 58; on *īṣibhāshita* see also p. 446 n. 3.

9. *dēvalōgachuyabhāsiyā*, see just above and also p. 280.

[88] 10. *pāvaphalavivāgā*, 55 *ajjh.*, *Kalpas.* Jinach. § 147,⁵ see p. 474; cf. Nos. 2, 7.

11. *mahākappam*, *Āvaśy.* 8, 55, as first *chhēasuttam*, see pp. 446, 449; in the *Nandī* among the *aṇaṃgapaviṭṭha* texts, see p. 11 (*mahākappasuam*).

12. *kappiyākappiam*, N among the *aṇaṃgap.*, p. 11.

13. *chullakappasuam*, *ib.*, p. 11.

14. *mahāpannavapā*, *ib.*, pp. 11, 84; see p. 392.

15. *pamāyappamāyam*, *ib.*, p. 11.

16. *pōrisimamḍalam*, *ib.*, p. 12.

17. *maṃḍalappavesō*, *ib.*

18. *vijjacharaṇavipicchhaō*, *ib.*

19. *jhāṇavibhatti*, *ib.*, and in the *Vidhiprapā* among the *pāṇṇa*, see p. 438.

20. *maraṇavibhatti*, in N among the *aṇaṃgap.*, p. 12.

21. *āyavisohī*, *ib.*

22. *vīyārāyasuam*, *ib.*

23. *saṃlēhasuam*, *ib.*

24. *vihārakappō*, *ib.*

25. *charaṇavihī*, *ib.*

³ We possess several texts on *kammavivāga*; thus 167 *Prākṛit-gāthās* by Jinavallabha in Peterson's *Palm-leaf* 42 f.; also 168 ditto by Garga *ibid.* Nos. 52, 81b, — and, without the name of the authors, Nos. 88b, 106, 161d. There is a *bālāvabodha* on it by Matichandra, see Kielhorn p. 93.

The *āyāradasū* mentioned there are identical with *chhēdasūtra* 4.

⁴ The *aṇaṃgapaviṭṭha* in 86 *ajjh.* mentioned *ibid.* are doubtless identical with *mūlasūtra* 1, see p. 48.

26. *dêvimdôvavââ*, in N among the *aṇaṃgap.*, p. 14.
27. *utthāṇasuaṃ*, *ib.*; *utthāṇasuyāiyā chaūrô* in the *kārikās* quoted p. 224 as the subject of the study of the thirteenth year.
28. *samutthāṇasuê*, p. 14.
29. *nāgapariyāvaliyâô*, *ib.*
30. *āsivisabhāvaṇâô* in the *Pākshikasûtra* and the three *s'mâchâri* texts, *ib.*; in the *kārikās* cited p. 214 as designed for the fourteenth year.
- [89] 31. *diṭṭhivisabhāvaṇâô*, *ib.*, for the 15th year.
32. *chāraṇabhāvaṇâô* (*chāraṇasamaṇabh°*), *ib.*, 16th year.
33. *mahāsuvipa*(*sumiṇa*)*bhāvaṇâô*, *ib.*, 17th year.
34. *tēaganisaggâ*, *ib.*, 18th year. According to *Vidhiprapâ* title of the 15th book in *aṅga* 5, see p. 301.
35. *marāṇavisôlhi*, in *Vidhiprapâ* among the *aṇaṃgap.*, see p. 12.
36. *rāhaṇapaḍāga*, in the *paṇṇa* list in *Âvi.*, see p. 427.
37. *aṃgavijjâ*, *ib.*
38. *jôisakaramḍaṃ*, *ib.*, and in the *paṇṇa* list of the *Ratnasāgara*, see p. 431 : cf. p. 84.
39. *marāṇasamâlhi*, in the *paṇṇa* list in *Âvi.* and in *Rāj. L. M.*, see p. 427 ; p. 86.
40. *tiṭṭhōgâlî*, in the *paṇṇa* list in *Âvi.*, see p. 427.⁶
41. *narayavibhatti*, *ib.*
42. *dēvavijjīyâ*, in the *paṇṇa* list of the *Ratnasāgara*, see p. 431 ; cf. p. 84.

Corresponding to the number of the 46 āgamas which exist or are recognized as parts of the Siddhānta, we have 42 texts which are at present not extant. If we add *pañchakalpa*⁷ and the two special *vāchanās* of the *mahānisīha*, and if we count singly the ten titles comprised in No. 6 (as is always the case in *aṅga* 3 and elsewhere) — then the number of the texts no longer extant [90] is eight greater than the number of those in existence. It must, however, be confessed that the ten pieces collected in No. 6 are very brief in compass, since they are each counted as one *ajjhayaṇam*; and the same may be the case as regards others of the texts now no longer extant. Nevertheless in the Siddhānta there are short texts and among the *aṅgas* there is one and that is not small (*aṅga* 4) which has but a single *ajjh.*

If we take into consideration the conclusions which we were obliged to adopt in regard to the loss of the *mahāparinnā* chapter in *aṅga* 1, in regard to the changes which *aṅgas* 5, 7—11, up. 8—12 are proved to have undergone, and in regard to the total loss of *aṅga* 12 etc., etc. — it is at once evident that great uncertainty reigns in this department of Indian literature, despite its seemingly firm articulation. The beginning of our knowledge is here contemporary with the beginning of our doubts. One fact is of cardinal importance: — Nos. 6, 27, 30—34 of the above list existed at the date of the *kārikās* cited on p. 224, and formed an integral part of the sacred study. The portion of the extant Siddhānta that is mentioned in p. 224 besides these is but trifling in comparison. The ultimate significance of this last assertion cannot, however, be seen at the present day. Cf. p. 225.

In conclusion, I desire to extend my most hearty thanks to Dr. E. Leumann for the generous assistance he has rendered in reading the proof of this treatise. This assistance comprises very numerous corrections made on the basis of MSS. and printed matter which were not accessible to me. I have also used to great advantage Kielhorn's Report and especially Peterson's Detailed Report.

⁶ The *siddhapāṣādhapaṇṇam* *ib.* belongs to *aṅga* 12, see pp. 355, 361.

⁷ In Kielhorn's report p. 64 there is mention made of a *pañchakalpasūtrachūṇi* by *Āmradevachārya*. See p. 477.

FOLKLORE IN SALSETTE.

BY GEO. FR. D'PENHA.

No. 13.—The Ill-treated Daughter-in-law.

There once lived an old woman with her son and his wife, and after a few years of married life the wife became pregnant. The old woman's son, about this time, fitted out a ship to go to another country, but before going he asked his mother to take care of his wife as she was pregnant, and said : — "*Máld sôkrá hól té máñjé tárvávar sôniachá pánñ parél, ani sókrá hól té rúpiachá pánñ parél*; If a son be born to me a shower of gold will fall on my ship, but if a daughter then there will be a shower of silver."

Then bidding farewell to his wife and mother he went away. After a few months had passed the wife felt her time of delivery approaching, and so she asked her mother-in-law if she might take her cot into the sleeping-room (*kámbrá*), but the old woman objected, saying : — "*Kámbrá hái tó dévñ dharmáchá*; The sleeping-room belongs to the gods and religious rites."

Then the daughter-in-law asked if she might place it in the hall (*sál*), and the mother-in-law again objected, saying : — "*Sál hái té úttá baisáuchan*;¹ The hall is meant for people to sit in."

Upon this the daughter-in-law asked if she might place her cot in the verandah (*ónjá*), and for the third time the old woman objected, saying : — "*Ónjá hái tó étian sátiachá*;² The verandah is meant for passers-by to rest themselves."

The poor daughter-in-law saw that there was no place in the house to be spared for her confinement, and at length resorted to a jungle, and there, under a mango-tree, was delivered of a boy. She left the child under the tree and went home, occasionally going back to give suck to the child. On the day the boy was born a shower of gold fell on his father's ship, upon which he distributed sugar to the crew and returned home. His mother, however, told him tales against his wife, and shewed him an *órôptá* (spice-grinding-stone), saying she had given birth to that stone! The husband's anger was roused against his wife, but he saw that he could do nothing and kept quiet.

A few more years passed and the wife was again pregnant. This time also her husband proceeded on a voyage. He again asked his mother to take care of his wife, which, of course she promised to do; and saying : — "*Máld sókrá hól té máñjé tárvávar sôniachá pánñ parél, ani sókrá hól té rúpiachá pánñ parél*; If a son be born to me there will fall on my ship a shower of gold, but if a daughter is born there will be a shower of silver," he went away.

Some months after, when the time of her labour commenced, the wife again asked her mother-in-law if she might use the sleeping-room, but she met with the same objection as before : — "*Kámbrá hái tó dévñ dharmáchá*; The sleeping-room belongs to the gods and religious rites."

She then asked for the use of the hall, but again came the objection : — "*Sál hái té úttá baisáuchan*; The hall is meant for people to sit in."

Then the use of the verandah was asked for, and again the old woman said : — "*Ónjá hái tó étian sátiachá*; The verandah is meant for such as come and go."

The poor woman, for the second time, was refused a place for her confinement, and again went into the jungle and was delivered under a *káññ* tree (catchu-nut tree), where she left the child and went home, occasionally going back to the tree to suckle it. For the second time there fell a shower of gold on her husband's ship, and, again distributing sugar to the crew, he returned home with great joy; but only to be disappointed, for the old woman again told him a lot of

¹ Literally, 'the hall is for rising and sitting.'

² Literally, 'the verandah is for such as come and go.'

tales, and produced a *bôvâtrâ* (Goa broom), saying that his wife had given birth to it! The husband was very much incensed against his wife, but cooled his ire, and had patience with her.

When a few more years had passed his wife again became pregnant, and for the third time her husband went on a voyage, leaving his wife to the care of his mother, who promised all care and to take every precaution that would ensure a successful delivery. Before he went away, he said: — “*Málâ sôkrâ hól tē mājē tārūvar sôniachâ pânñ parêl, ani sôkrâ hól tē rūpiachâ pânñ parêl*; Should a son be born to me there will fall on my ship a shower of gold, but if a daughter then a shower of silver.”

Now in due time the wife felt her time approaching, and, therefore, asked her mother-in-law if she might use the sleeping apartment, but she only got the same old answer: — “*Kāmbrâ hái tē dēuân dharmáchâ*; The sleeping-room is assigned to the gods and religious rites.”

So also when she asked for a place in the hall, she was told: — “*Sál hái tē útta baidavcham*; The hall is meant for people to sit in.”

She now pleaded for the verandah, but was put off by the same answer: — “*Ôitâ hái tē etiân zâtianchâ*; The verandah is meant for passers-by.”

The poor woman saw no alternative, but had again to resort to the jungle, and was delivered this time of a daughter, under a tamarind tree (*chiniñ*). After her delivery she left the child there and went home, occasionally going back to suckle it. Her husband witnessed a heavy shower of silver, and, after again distributing sugar to the crew, returned home; but only to be disappointed for the third time, for he was now shewn a *môvâli* (date-palm broom).

Now, this time the old woman told him so many tales that he was mad with rage. She told him to get rid of his wife, and said she would get him married to another. Her son believed every word that was told him, and having chastised his wife most brutally, went and hanged her on an *or* tree (*Ficus religiosa*), and left her there a long time. Fortunately for her, however, there passed that way some *gôvnlâs* (cow-herds) who felt deeply for her, and thought within themselves: — “*Bichârisun kâ gûnia kélêi kôn zânê: pân âpân sôvân tilâ*; What offence the poor woman may have committed, who can say? But we will, nevertheless, set her free.”

So they set her free, and went their way to graze their cattle. She now went and fetched together her children. The two boys were pretty well advanced in years, and the girl had made wonderful progress in her growth. So they built a hut, and lived in it.

The old woman, in the meanwhile, made arrangements for getting her son married to another girl, and on the appointed day our hero was dressed up ready to go to the Church. But his former wife, who came to know that her husband was about to go to Church to be married to some one else, called to her children and taught them to say: —

Âmbiâ burchiâ âmbayâ dâdâ, kâzû burchiâ kâzûyâ dâdâ, chinchê burchê sâlôp báyê, lâl tôpivâdâ âmchâ báp, ôrûvar tânglêi âmchâ âi, dharam kar gô kausâlñê âjê; Brother Mango from under the mango tree; Brother Catchu-nut from under the catchu-nut tree; Sister Sâlôp from under the tamarind tree; the man with the red hat is our father; our mother is hanging on the banian tree; give alms, oh tale-telling grandmother!”

When they were able to repeat this by heart, she told them to go and say it near their father's house. The children went and standing before the house repeated what their mother had taught them. Their father, who had never seen them before, was taken by their faces, and, as he did not understand what they had said, he told them to repeat it again, upon which they said: —

Âmbiâ burchiâ âmbayâ dâdâ, kâzû burchiâ kâzûyâ dâdâ, chinchê burchê sâlôp báyê, lâl tôpivâdâ âmchâ báp, ôrûvar tânglêi âmchâ âi, dharam kar gô kausâlñê âjê; Brother Mango from under

the mango tree; Brother Catchu-nut from under the catchu-nut tree; Sister Sâlôp from under the tamarind tree; the man with the red hat is our father; our mother is hanging on the banian tree; give alms, oh tale-telling grandmother!"

Their father called to his mother and told her to give them some *ôré*.³ She came out, but, suspecting who the children were, refused to give them anything. Their father, however, himself went to the cook-house, and fetched some *ôré* and gave them to the children. He then made them repeat what they said over and over again several times. At last he thought there must be some meaning attached to what they said, and asked them where they had learnt it. The children told him that their mother had taught them. Upon this he told them to call their mother (his own wife), and when she came in his presence, he asked her whose children they were that were standing before them, and she said: — "These children are yours and mine."

When she said this, he told her to explain what it all meant. She then told him all: — How she had been prevented from being delivered in the house on the plea that "*kâmbrâ hâi tō dēvân dharmâchâ*, the sleeping-room belongs to the gods and religious rites: *sûl hâi tō ûttâ baisāvchan*, the hall is meant for sitting in: *ôñdâ hâi tō êtîan zâtianhâ*, the verandah belongs to passers-by;" and how she had resorted to the jungle, where she was delivered first of a boy under a mango tree, a second time of another boy under a catchu-nut tree, and the third time of a girl under a tamarind tree; and how each time she was wont to go home leaving the children there, occasionally going to them to give them milk; and how his mother, whenever he came home, shewed him first an *ôronîdâ* (spice-grinding-stone), secondly a *bôvâtrâ* (Goa broom), and thirdly a *môvâlî* (date-palm broom); and how, not content with these tricks, she had told him a great many tales. Upon this he embraced his wife and children, and asked her why she did not tell him all this long ago, even at the risk of her life. Then in a rage he took hold of his mother, cut her into three pieces, and hung the pieces up on three roads.

After this he lived happily with his wife and children.⁴

MISCELLANEA.

TIBETAN FOLKLORE.

1.—Cats.

The Cat is treated by Tibetans with the most marked attention and forbearance. Even when it spills milk, breaks or destroys any valuable object or kills some pet bird, it is never whipped or beaten in any way; but merely chid, and gently driven away by the voice: — while were a dog or child to commit these offences they would be soundly thrashed.

Such very mild and considerate treatment might lead one to suppose that the cat is esteemed holy. But such is not the case. It is indeed regarded as a useful animal to the extent that it contributes to the preservation of sacred pictures, robes, books, and sacrificial food and the like, by killing the rats and mice which consume and

destroy these. But otherwise the cat is considered to be the most sinful being on earth, on account of its constant desire for taking life, even when gorged with food, and its torture of its victims. Its mild treatment is due to the belief that whoever causes the death of a cat, whether accidentally or otherwise, will have the sins of the cat transferred to his shoulders. And so great is the burden of its sins that even were one *str* (2 lbs.) of butter for each hair on the cat's body offered in feeding the temple lamps before Buddha's image, the crime would not be expiated. Hence everyone is most careful to avoid incurring this calamity. And when a cat dies its body is carried outside the village and deposited, if possible, at a place where two paths cross.

L. A. WARDELL.

³ The process of making these *ôré* (singular *ôrdâ*) is similar to making *pôlê* (see *ante*, p. 143). But while *pôlê* are made in the shape of ordinary hand-bread, *ôré* are made by putting lumps of wheaten dough, thicker than that used for *pôlê*, into boiling oil. *ôré* are generally made on occasions of weddings and feasts.

⁴ [This story is valuable as shewing where the second part of the extraordinary story of Bâpkhâdî (*ante*, p. 142 &c.) comes from. — Ed.]

NOTES ON AN ARCHÆOLOGICAL TOUR THROUGH RAMANNADESA
(THE TALAING COUNTRY OF BURMA).

BY TAW SEIN-KO.

UNDER instructions from the Government of Burma, I left Rangoon for Moulmein on the 5th December, 1891. As it was my intention to explore the whole of the country, which constituted the ancient Talaing kingdom of Rāmaññadēsa, with special reference to the elucidation of the history of the places mentioned in the Kalyāṇi Inscriptions, I went down to Amherst by boat and returned to Moulmein by land, and the notes now published are those that I was enabled to make by the way.

The Mun or Talaing language is still spoken in the villages between Amherst and Moulmein, and is still taught in the monastic schools there; but, owing to there being no Government grants-in-aid given for the encouragement of its study, it is not taught in the lay schools. The Talaing language has a unique literature of its own; numbers of inscriptions are recorded in it; and certain questions relating to the ethnography, history, antiquities, and languages of the peoples inhabiting Burma are awaiting solution, because the Talaing literature is still a *terra incognita*. Considering that the study of the insignificant dialects of the Karen language, which has no indigenous literature, and whose alphabet was invented by Doctor Wade, an American Missionary, in 1832, receives considerable encouragement, it would be well if the Education Department could see its way to recognize Talaing in the curriculum of studies for indigenous schools in those parts of the Tavoy, Amherst, Shwêgyin, and Pegu districts, where it is still spoken and studied. This measure would, no doubt, be pleasing to the Talaings, and would be a token of gracious, although late, recognition of the services rendered by their fellow-countrymen to the British in the first and second Burmese Wars.¹

About 20 miles from Amherst is Wāgarū, originally founded by King Wāgarū near the close of the 13th Century, A. D. The site of the old city is now completely covered with jungle; but traces of its walls and moat still exist. It is said that its walls were of laterite, and that images of the same material existed in its vicinity. But I saw neither the walls nor the images; apparently the laterite walls have served as road-metal for the contractors of the Public Works Department, and the images are hidden by jungle. I am not sure whether any excavations carried out at Wāgarū would bring to light any inscriptions or objects of archæological interest.

On the 11th December, Pāgāt was visited. There are caves of great historical interest in its neighbourhood. Pāgāt is the birth-place of Wāgarū, who restored the Talaing monarchy after Rāmaññadēsa had been subject to Burmese rule for over two centuries, and is full of historical associations. It was here that Dālābān,² the 'Hereward the Wake' of the Talaings, utilized the strategic position of the place, and for long defied the Burmese forces of (Alaungp'ayā) Alompra's son and immediate successor, Naungdōgyi.³ The caves are natural openings in hills of submarine limestone rock. Some of them are over 1,000 feet in height and have precipitous sides. It is reported that large boxes of Talaing palm-leaf manuscripts, which were originally hidden by patriotic Talaings to escape destruction from the ruthless hands of the Burmese conquerors, are decaying⁴ in the sequestered parts of these caves.

¹ [I fully endorse this plea for the preservation of the Talaing language. It is rapidly disappearing before Burmese, and it is pitiable to note the absolute ignorance of many Talaings of their distinctive language. But historically it is quite as valuable as Burmese, if not more so. It is not desirable, speaking practically, to revive Talaing, but academically its preservation would be invaluable and a chair in the Rangoon College might well be devoted to Talaing and its epigraphy and literature.—ED.]

² *Al-w* in Italian *cosa*.

³ *ḍ=aw* in 'law.'

⁴ Subsequently, I learnt from a priest of the Mahāyān *kyauṅ* (monastery) at Kaddō, that complete sets of Talaing manuscripts are being preserved in the Royal Libraries at Bangkok. It would be a good thing to obtain a set for the Bernard Free Library at Rangoon. Perhaps the British Consul could be moved to prefer a request to

There are now few persons, who can read and understand these manuscripts; but, whenever they shall have been interpreted by a trained scholar, they will throw a flood of light on Talaing history, and on the history of learned, religious, and commercial relations between Rāmaññadēsa, Ceylon, and Southern India. They will also solve certain questions connected with Pāli and Sanskrit philology and literature.

Owing to want of time only two caves, namely, the Kògun and Pàgàt, could be visited. The former presents a splendid sight. Its precipitous side facing the Kògun village is completely covered by painted terra cotta tablets arranged symmetrically in the form of terraces and spires. Inside the cave are lying images of various sizes in different stages of decay and ruin. They are found to be made of the following substances: lead, brass, wood, stone, brick, and lacquerware. The majority of them bespeak their antiquity, as they differ from modern ones in the following particulars:—the head is surmounted by a spiral truncated cone representing the Buddhist nimbus; the bristles of the hair are represented; the ears do not touch the shoulders; the forehead is prominent, but remarkably narrow; the eyebrows, eyes, and lips are the most prominent features of the face; the body is short and stout and the head is disproportionately big; the limbs are full and large; the sole of the right foot is not displayed.

No history is known to exist about the caves of this neighbourhood; nor is there any person, layman or priest, who can relate anything historically true about them. But, judging from the fact that Rāmaññadēsa was subject to Cambodian rule from the 6th to the 10th century A. D., and again to Siamese rule in the 14th century, it may be safely inferred that most of the images are of Cambodian or Siamese origin. The general architectural effect of the cave, and the resemblance of these images to those of Siam, favour this view. A closer examination in detail, however, might reveal the fact that some of the images were dedicated to Brahmanical worship, which was favoured by the ancient Kings of Cambodia, that others are of Sinhalese or Dravidian origin, and that there is some relationship, historical, religious, and architectural, between the caves in the Amherst district and the cave temples of Cambodia and India. I brought away three small wooden images with legends, now illegible, but conjectured to be in the Siamese characters inscribed on their pedestals. (See plate.)

The Pàgàt Cave was next visited. It contains nothing of interest. It is now the home of bats, whose dung yields an annual revenue of Rs. 600. It would appear that the contents of this cave have been made away with in order to make room for the more valuable dung!

Near this cave is a monastery, now occupied by a priest from Upper Burma. Since the annexation of that province to the British Crown, numbers of Buddhist priests from it have settled down in this district. Owing to their reputed learning and their conversational powers, they are highly esteemed and are abundantly supplied with the necessaries of life. The Talaing priests are, as a rule, somewhat lax in their observance of strict precepts: *e. g.*, they are possessed of boats and landed estates, drive about in bullock-carts, drink tea in the evenings, and smoke cigars in public! Such conduct is now being followed by the priests from Upper Burma, who appear to be imbued with the truth of the proverb: "At Rome, do as Rome does." The burden of supporting the priests, who do very little in return for their maintenance, and who idle away most of their time, because the educational work is better and more efficiently done by the lay schools, is in the Talaing Country indeed a heavy one. On an average about 100 houses support a *kyauung*, and every village that has any pretence to piety must have a *kyauung* of its own. The standard of material comfort of the villagers,

this effect to His Siamese Majesty. The late Dr. Forchhammer succeeded in procuring a number of ancient Talaing manuscripts from the caves in the neighbourhood of Pàgàt. I understand some of them, if not all, are now lying in the Bodleian Free Library. [The Chief Commissioner, Burmah, has addressed the British Consul at Bangkok on the subject.—ED.]

INSCRIBED WOODEN IMAGES FROM THE KOGUN CAVE.



Taw Sen Ko

Scale-625

Photo since S I O Calcutta

who maintain the *kyang*, may be a low one, but the *pōngyi* in charge of the *kyang* is fed on the fat of the land.

On the 14th December, I visited Kōkarēk, which is inhabited by Burmans, Talaings, Shāns, Karens, and Taungḍūs. The Taungḍūs are an interesting people. They have a literature⁵ of their own, and I obtained a copy of a poetical work called *Suttanippan* (*Suttanibbāna* or *Nibbānasutta*).⁶ The language of the Taungḍūs contains words bodily borrowed from the languages of the peoples by whom they are surrounded. The Taungḍūs resemble their congeners, the Karens, in physical appearance; their build is thick-set, and they have full, round, and heavy features. At Kōkarēk the Taungḍū language is purer than at Thatōn, although there have been many inter-marriages between the Taungḍūs and the Shāns.

The meaning of the word 'Taungḍū' is **Highlander**, in contradistinction to the people of the lowlands. A similar distinction obtains in Cambodia, the ancient Kingdom of the Khmers.⁷ The latter M. Mouhot describes thus:—"Having a great taste for music, and being gifted with ears excessively fine, with them⁸ originated the *tam-tam*, so prized among the neighbouring nations; and by uniting its sounds to those of a large drum, they obtain music tolerably harmonious. The art of writing is unknown to them; and as they necessarily lead a wandering life, they seem to have lost nearly all traditions of the past. The only information I could extract from their oldest chief was, that far beyond the chain of mountains which crosses the country from north to south, are other *people of the high country* (such is the name they give themselves; that of *savage* wounds them greatly), that they have many relations there, and they even cite names of villages or hamlets as far as the provinces occupied by the Annamite invaders. Their practice is to bury their dead." The above description would, with slight modifications and with the exception of the part relating to their ignorance of the art of writing, answer very well for that of the Taungḍūs.

The Taungḍūs call themselves **Phāḍ**, i. e., ancient fathers, and have a tradition that large numbers of them emigrated years ago from their original seat of Thatōn to a State of the same name in the Shān country. Since then they have borrowed largely from Shān literature: in fact, their books, most of which have been translated from Shān, contain a large admixture of Shān words.⁹

The Taungḍū alphabet appears to have a closer affinity to that of the Talaings or the Burmans than to that of the Shāns, as it recognises the medial letters, which are absent in Shān. The one peculiarity deserving of notice in the pronunciation of the letters is the Indian sound accorded to the letters of the palatal class, e.g., ञ is pronounced *ch* and not *s*, as the Tibetans, Burmans, and Talaings pronounce. This is a remarkable fact showing the probability of the Taungḍūs having received their alphabet direct from Indian colonists.¹⁰

⁵ "My authority for this is the following extract of a note from a gentleman of the American Mission to Lieutenant Newmarch:—

"The Tounghoos have a written language and books, and kyoungs and priests. I have seen their books, and on the fall of Sebastopol I printed the Governor-General's proclamation for Lieutenant Burn in Tounghoo, but I confess it was the *first* and only thing that was ever printed in Tounghoo."—Yule's *Mission to Ava*, Appendix M., page 383.

⁶ [This is now in the British Museum. Dr. Cushing informs me that Taungḍū MSS. are frequently to be met with in Shān monasteries, and that the commonest text of all is the *Suttanippan*.—Ed.]

⁷ Vide Mouhot's *Travels in the Central Parts of Indo-China, Cambodia, and Laos*, page 24.

⁸ Savages to the East of Cambodia, called by the Cambodians their elder brothers.

⁹ [Dr. Cushing informs me that the Taungḍū Language is closely related to that of the Pghò Karens and that a Taungḍū can easily learn to make himself intelligible to a Pghò Karen in a short time.—Ed.]

¹⁰ [It may some day help much in determining the original sound of many Burmese words, which, no doubt have, in historical times, changed their sounds.—Ed.]

The Taungḍū language, as evidenced by the comparative vocabulary shown below, has closer affinity to Burmese than to Shân or Talaing :

Taungḍū.	Burmese.	Meaning.
Ta-pâ ¹¹	Ta, tit	One.
Nî-pâ	Hna, hnit	Two.
Sôn-pâ	bôn : ¹⁴	Three.
Lit-pâ	Lê :	Four.
Ngat-pâ	Ngá :	Five.
Sû-pâ	Chauk	Six.
Nit-pâ	Khuhnit... ..	Seven.
Sôt-pâ	Shit	Eight.
Kut-pâ	Kô :	Nine.
Tachî : ¹²	Tasè ¹⁵	Ten.
Mî : ¹³	Nê	Sun.
Lâ	Lâ	Moon.
Châ	Kyè ¹⁶	Star.
Phâ	Phâ	Father.
Mê :	Mi	Mother.
Lô	Lâ	Man.

On the 28th, I started for Thatôn and reached it on the same day. Datôn, as the name spelt Thatôn, Thahtun, and Thatone, is pronounced, has been identified by Burmese and Talaing writers as the *Suvannabhūmi* of the Buddhist books, and the *Aurea Regio* of Ptolemy and others. It is bounded on the east by the Dīnganêk Range, which is about 12 miles long, and trends from north to south. On the west is an immense rice plain, which is about 15 miles in breadth, and beyond that is the sea. In the rainy season the plain is covered by water and navigation over it by boat is possible.

According to a Talaing tradition, Thatôn was founded by Siharajā, a contemporary of Gautama Buddha. In choosing the site of the new city he consulted his foster-father, the Rishi of Zingyaik, and was advised to select a spot where gold was found, and to which a large population would be attracted in a short time. The spot where the Jubilee Memorial Fountain, erected in 1888, is now playing, is still pointed out as the site of the palace of Siharajā and Manuhâ, the first and last kings of Thatôn. Close by is the gold-bearing stream of the Shwêgyaung Sà, which is perennial and issues from the Dīnganêk (Singanika) Hill. Gold is still worked by isolated individuals at the beginning and close of the rainy season, but the quantities obtained are not commensurate with the amount of labour involved.

There are five Talaing inscriptions at Thatôn : four in the enclosure of the Shwêzâyan Pagoda, and the remaining one under a banyan tree at Nyaungwaing. Their palæography indicates that their age is about 400 years.

Three brick buildings near the Shwêzâyan Pagoda are known as the libraries, whence Andrat'azò, King of Pagàn, is said to have removed the "five elephant-loads of Buddhist scriptures" in 1057 A. D.

¹¹ Pâ denotes an individual unit. Its cognate form, pronounced with the heavy tone, is employed as a numeral co-efficient in Burmese.

¹² Oh in Taungḍū is interchangeable with e in Burmese.

¹³ This word means fire in Burmese ; but the primitive conception of the sun as the source of heat may have possibly existed.

¹⁴ The sign : denotes that the syllable to which it is affixed should be pronounced with the heavy tone.

¹⁵ Sè et in 'pair.'

¹⁶ Ky = ch in Burmese as often as not.

Terra cotta tablets, inserted in niches in the *Dagyap'ayā* (pagoda) within the same enclosure are of considerable interest. Most of them have been destroyed, and the meaning of the representations is not accurately understood. But they appear to indicate that the people, whoever they were, who constructed these tablets, undoubtedly professed **Brahmanism or Hinduism**, and that they had attained to some degree of civilization. **Siva with his trident is the predominant figure**; conveyances are drawn by single ponies, and women wear their hair in big knots at the back of the head. The features of the persons represented are of Mongolian cast, and resemble those of the Karens and Taungḍūs of the present day.¹⁷

The *Dagyap'ayā*, in common with other sacred edifices built by the Talaings, is constructed of hewn laterite; and the existence of several tanks in its vicinity indicates the source whence this building material was obtained.

There are three sculptures in bas-relief on stone, representing **Vaishṇava symbols**, lying in the enclosure of the Assistant Commissioner's Court-house. These have been removed to the Phayre Museum at Rangoon.¹⁸

Nāt (*i.e.* spirit) worship is still, as in other parts of Burma, one of the prevailing forms of belief at Thatōn. I visited the temple of the Nāt called *Phô-phô*=Grandfather. Tradition, which is, in this case, *prima facie* palpably false, says that, when this Nāt was a human being, he was charged by *Sôṇa* and *Uttara*, the Buddhist missionaries who visited *Rāmaññadēsa* in the third century B.C., to safeguard Thatōn against the attacks of the *bīlīs* or ogres. The image of *Phô-phô* represents an old man of about 60 years of age, sitting cross-legged, with a white fillet round the head, and a moustache and pointed beard. The forehead is broad and the face bears an intelligent expression. The upper portion of the body is nude, and the lower is dressed in a *chêk pasô*, or loin-cloth, of the zigzag pattern so much prized by the people of Burma. The right hand rests on the right knee, and the left is in the act of counting the beads of a rosary. The height of the figure is about five feet. In the apartment on the left of *Phô-phô* is an image representing a benign-looking *wun*, or governor, in full official dress. Facing the second image in a separate apartment is the representation of a wild, fierce-looking *bô*, or military officer, in uniform. The fourth apartment on the left of the *bô* is dedicated to a female *nāt*, who is presumably the wife of *Phô-phô*. But there is no image representing her. It is a noteworthy fact that, as it would be if in India and Ceylon, this temple is held in veneration by various nationalities professing different creeds. The images of the *nāts* are in a good state of preservation, as they are in the custody of a medium, who gains a comfortable livelihood thereby. An annual festival, which is largely attended, is held in their honour. These *nāts* are to my mind clearly an embodiment of hero-worship, representing some benevolent and sympathetic Burmese governor and his relatives, who left behind them a kindly memory.¹⁹

On the 31st December, I visited the **Kôkbēnnayôn Hill**, which is about eight miles to the west of *Bilin*. On the top of the hill are two images representing the Buddhist missionaries, *Sôṇa* and *Uttara*, in a recumbent posture and with their hands clasped towards a stone vessel placed between them. The vessel is reputed to contain a hair of *Gautama Buddha*. Around *Sôṇa* and *Uttara* are the figures of *yahāṇḍās*, or Buddhist saints, with full, round, and heavy features. The foreheads of these figures are broad and prominent, but retreating; the nose is big and long; and the mouth large. At the four corners of the platform on the top of the hill, are figures of a strange monster, half man, half beast, called, by a false Palicism, *Manussīha*.

¹⁷ A description of these tablets is given at pages 716 and 717 of the *British Burma Gazetteer*, Vol. II. [I do not personally quite agree with the statements in the text and will endeavour to show, in a paper now preparing for publication in this *Journal*, that all the Thatōn sculptures are quite compatible with the Buddhist cult.—Ed.]

¹⁸ [Though of a most interesting Indian character, it is probably yet premature to state their precise nature.—Ed.]

¹⁹ [I may note that, when I was in Thatōn, I was told that they represent a Portuguese governor and his staff, and that they are consulted before entering on any kind of project. If they smile the project will succeed.—Ed.]

There is no such Pāli word, but the term has been coined to designate a monster with one human head and two lions' bodies. The 'origin' of the *manussīha* is thus recorded in the *Kalyāṇi Inscriptions* :—

"The town (Gólamattikanagara= the modern Ayetbèrà in the Shwègyin district) was situated on the sea-shore; and there was a *rakkhasī*, who lived in the sea, and was in the habit of always seizing and devouring every child that was born in the king's palace. On the very night of the arrival of the two *thēras*, the chief queen of the king gave birth to a child. The *rakkhasī*, knowing that a child had been born in the king's palace, came towards the town, surrounded by 500 other *rakkhasas*, with the object of devouring it. When the people saw the *rakkhasī*, they were stricken with terror, and raised a loud cry. The two *thēras*, perceiving that the *rakkhasī* and her attendants had assumed the exceedingly frightful appearance of lions, each with one head and two bodies, created (by means of their supernatural power) monsters of similar appearance, but twice the number of those accompanying the *rakkhasī*, and these monsters chased the *rakkhasas* and obstructed their further progress. When the *pisāchas* saw twice their own number of monsters created by the supernatural power of the two *thēras*, they cried out: 'Now we shall become their prey, and being stricken with terror, fled towards the sea.'"

Fergusson, in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (page 622), makes the following pertinent remarks on the origin of this monster: "This illustration (of the Shwèdagôn Pagoda at Rangoon) is also valuable as showing the last lineal descendant of these great human-headed winged lions that once adorned the portals of the palaces at Nineveh; but after nearly 3,000 years of wandering and ill-treatment have degenerated into these wretched caricatures of their former selves."²⁰

In an image-house at the foot of the hill is a brass bell on which the old Talaing inscription has been effaced, and a modern Burmese one engraved. It is, perhaps, hopeless to recover a copy of the ancient inscription.

On the 1st January 1892, I visited the Tizaung Pagoda at Zókthók village, which is about 6 miles to the north of Bilin. The basement of the pagoda is constructed of blocks of laterite, each about 2 feet by 1½ feet by 1 foot in dimension. Some of the images, as well as the receptacles for offerings, &c., placed around it are of the same material, and bear traces of ornamentation. In the neighbourhood are sculptures in relief engraved on large laterite blocks, which are so arranged as to form panels on the face of a wall or rampart of earth 450 feet long and 12 feet high. They are known as the *sindāt-myindāt* (elephants and horses of war); but the representations are those of elephants and tigers, or lions, alternately with those of *nāts* interspersed between them.²¹

The Kēlābā (Kēlāsa) Pagoda — the Kēlāsabhapabbatachētiya²² of the Kalyāṇi Inscriptions — was visited on the 2nd January. It is situated on a steep hill about 2,000 feet high, and appears to have been renovated. It derives its sanctity from the tradition that, like the Kyaiktiyō and Kōkḍennāyōn Pagodas, it contains one of the three hairs given by Gāntama Buddha to the Rishi Kēlāsa. Near the pagoda are two stone inscriptions cut by King Dhammachēti. They are in the Talaing character. The engraved portion of one has been entirely destroyed and only the socket remains standing, while half of the other has been broken. Only one *manussīha*, facing seawards, is found on the pagoda platform. Numbers of square bricks with the representation of a lotus flower impressed upon them are lying about the place.

²⁰ [The very remarkable resemblance of the *chinṣ* of Burma (out of which, no doubt, grew the *manussīha*) to the winged lion of Nineveh, down to the very beard, has often impressed me. So also has that of the *tō* of Burma to the winged bull. An intermediary form of the *chinṣ* is perhaps to be seen in the two lions couchant (= *chinṣ*) from the Amarāvati Tope in the British Museum.—ED.]

²¹ [They probably were intended to represent a military expedition. See below, note 29.—ED.]

²² [The syllable *bha* in this word is remarkable, and occurs, apparently as a local peculiarity, in other Palicisms of the Talaings. E.g., Tikumbhachēti — the modern Palicized name of the Shwèdagôn Pagoda.—ED.]



No 1. THE KALYÂNĪ SIMA AT PEGU.



TAW SEIN KO

No 2 THE STONES ON WHICH THE KALYÂNĪ INSCRIPTIONS ARE CUT.

The Kêlâsa Hill abounds in plants used in Burmese medicine. The plant, called *maukh'add*, is employed as an antidote against snake-poison, and another, called *h'wêgaungrawet*, is used in curing hydrophobia.

On the same day, the village of *Ayetbêmâ*, which is four miles off, was visited. It is the ancient *Taikkulâ* and the *Gôlamattikanagara* of the *Kalyâni* Inscriptions. Dr. Forchhammer in his *Notes on the Early History and Geography of British Burma*, II. page 7, says: "Though the seashore is now about twelve miles²³ to the west, this place was still an important seaport in the 16th and 17th centuries; it is marked on the map of Professor Lassen as *Takkala*, but erroneously placed a few miles north of Tavoy. Cables, ropes, and other vestiges of sea-going vessels are still frequently dug up about *Taikkulâ*."²⁴

As to *Gôlamattikanagara* (for *Gôla* read *Skr. Gauḍa*), if the evidence afforded by the *Kalyâni* Inscriptions can be relied on, the settlement in *Suvannabhûmi* was apparently colonized from Bengal during one of the struggles for supremacy between Buddhism and Brahmanism and possibly Jainism also.²⁵ At the conclusion of the third Buddhist Council it was remembered by the mother-country, and missionaries were sent to it in order to re-establish community of faith.

There used to be a *Talaing* inscription near *Ayetbêmâ*, but it was removed to the *Phayre* Museum at Rangoon about eight years ago. Traces of a wall and moat still exist, and fragments of pottery and of glazed tiles are found in the neighbourhood.

Pegu was reached on the night of the 3rd January. Extensive ruins are extant on the east and west face of the town. The ruins at *Zaingganaing*, on the west side, comprise those of *Kalyânisimâ*, *Mahachêti*, *Yabêmyô*, *Kyaikpun*,²⁶ and *Shwêggyi*. There are ten inscriptions at *Kalyânisimâ*, one at *Yabêmyô* and twenty-two at *Shwêggyi*. Between *Kalyânisimâ* and *Mahachêti* is an enormous image of *Gautama* Buddha in a recumbent posture, measuring about 181 feet in length. Treasure-hunters have been hard at work among these ruins, and I am told that their acts of vandalism are countenanced both by the *pôngyis* and the native officials, who expect a share in the "finds." Most of the stone inscriptions have been broken by treasure-hunters, or by pagoda slaves, who were anxious to obliterate the record of their origin. In some cases, the names of persons dedicated as pagoda slaves have been carefully chiselled out.²⁷

Pegu is the *Thebaid* of *Bâmaññadêssâ*, as *Pagân* is of *Burma Proper*, and its ruins have great claim to a detailed archæological survey. The *Kalyânisimâ* is the most interesting of all. (See plate No. 1.) It is an ancient Hall of Ordination, to which Buddhist priests from all parts of *Burma*, and even from *Ceylon* and *Siam*, used to flock to receive their *upasampadâ* ordination. Close by are ten stone-slabs covered with inscriptions on both sides. All of them are more or less broken, but the fragments, which are lying scattered about are

²³ Of late, the sea has been encroaching on the land. At the time of my visit, the sites of many villages, which derived their wealth and prosperity from the rice trade, were under water.

²⁴ The subject of the identification of this place with the *Takôla* of *Ptolemy* and the *Kalah* of *Arabian Geographers* is discussed, *op. cit.*, at pages 12—16, and at pages 198 and 199 of *McCrindle's Ancient India described by Ptolemy*.

²⁵ The *Kalyâni* Inscriptions (1476 A. D.), obverse of first stone, say "this town is called to this day *Gôlamattikanagara*, because it contains many mud and wattle houses resembling those of the *Gôla* people."

²⁶ Four colossal images of Buddha sitting cross-legged, back to back, and facing the cardinal points. The height of each image is about 90 feet; the thumb measures 8 feet, the arm from the inner elbow-joint to the tip of the middle finger 38 feet, the distance from knee to knee 62 feet. The images represent the four Buddhas, who have appeared in this *Kalpa*, namely, *Kakusandha*, *Kôpagamana*, *Kassapa*, and *Gautama*. Similar images are found at *Pagân*, the prototype being probably those of *Angkor Thôm*. [These peculiar images are clearly Cambodian, and form a tower of the ordinary Cambodian type. Terra cotta tablets, much mutilated unfortunately, found in the neighbourhood clearly represent Cambodian figures, such as are common in *Pnom-Penh*.—Ed.]

²⁷ [A common and unfortunate practice all over *Burma*.—Ed.]

capable of restoration. Their average dimensions are about 12 feet high, 4 feet 2 inches wide, and 1 foot and 3 inches thick. They were set up by King Dhammachêti after he had founded the Kalyāṇisimā in 1476 A. D. The language of the inscriptions is partly Pāli and partly Talaiṅg. (See plate No. 2.) Numerous copies of the Pāli portion on palm-leaf are extant, and from two of them I have prepared a text transcribed in the Roman character.²⁸ The great value of the Kalyāṇi Inscriptions rests on the detailed information they give of the manner in which *simās* (*bēṅs*) should be consecrated in order to secure their validity, of the intercourse of Pegu and Burma with Ceylon and Southern India in the 15th century A. D., and of the Burmese view of the apostolic succession of the Buddhist priesthood.

The Mahāchêti Pagoda is a huge pile of brick and laterite, built by Hānbāwadi S'inyūyin about the middle of the 16th century A. D. Only the square basement now remains, measuring about 320 feet wide at the base, and about 170 feet high.

Nothing definite is known about the ruins of Yabēmyô, Kyaikpun, and Shwêgūgyi. In the neighbourhood of the last-named Pagoda, glazed terra cotta tablets exhibiting, in relief, figures of human beings and animals were found lying scattered about. A number of such tablets have been collected in Mr. Jackson's garden near the Kalyāṇisimā. All these should be acquired by Government and sent to the Phayre Museum at Rangoon. They appear to have been manufactured by colonists from India.²⁹

The religious buildings at Pegu suffered greatly at the hands of the Portuguese adventurer, Philip de Brito y Nicote, alias Maung Zingà, who held his Court at Syriam at the beginning of the 17th century, and also at the hands of Alompra's soldiery, who, being incensed at the acts of sacrilege committed by the Talaiṅgs during their ephemeral conquest of Burma Proper, wreaked their vengeance when their turn came. It is said that Maung Zingà, who was originally a ship-boy, and was stationed at Syriam to watch events and to represent his master, the King of Arakan, entertained ambitious designs of holding Pegu as a dependency of the Crown of Portugal and of converting the Peguans to Christianity. For the attainment of this object, he allied himself with Byinyā Dalā, the Governor of Martaban, who was tributary to Siam, and opened communications with the Viceroy of Goa. He failed in his object and met with his death, because he had alienated the sympathy of the people by breaking down their religious buildings and shipping off to Goa the treasures obtained therefrom in "five ships." In the plaintive words of the *bamaing* or *history* of the Shwêṁḍḍō Pagoda: "Maung Zingà was a heretic, who, for ten years, searched for pagodas to destroy them. Religion perished in Rāmañña, and good works were no longer performed."

The Shwêgūgalē Pagoda is in a good state of preservation. Its basement consists of a gallery containing 64 images of Buddha, each 4 feet 8 inches high, which were apparently constructed by Siamese architects. It is octagonal in shape, and is a remarkable structure. On each side is an entrance, 6 feet high by 3 feet 2 inches wide, and 7 feet 2 inches long; these entrances lead to an interior gallery, 5 feet 2 inches wide and 7 feet 3 inches high; the entire gallery, passing round the central portion, measures 246 feet.

Close to the Māzinchaung, is the Shwēnabā Pagoda. It contains an image sculptured in relief on a tablet of sandstone measuring 5½ feet by 4 feet. The image has an Indian cast of features, and is fabled to be shackled with fetters owing to its having once fled from Pegu. It is said that this image, as well as a similar one of the same name on the eastern face of the

²⁸ [To be published later in this *Journal*. With help from the Government, generously accorded, I am making an effort to restore these invaluable documents to their original condition and to preserve them from further injury.—ED.]

²⁹ [Through Mr. Jackson's kindness and as a result of a visit by myself to the spot, over 100 of these tablets have been secured for the Phayre Museum. Four are in the Pitt-Rivers Museum at Oxford and two in the British Museum. They represent the march, battle and defeat of a foreign (ogre) army. Those found at the other spot mentioned in this article, represent what I take to be Cambodian figures of nobles, and perhaps, ancient Siamese also. A few are inscribed in the Kyauksā (Kiousa) character. Personally, I should doubt their Indian origin.—ED.]

city, were brought away from Taikkulā. The resemblance between them and the figure of Avalōkitēśvara³⁰ is very striking, and suggests the idea that they have probably been modified from an Indian original to suit new surroundings.

Near this image was picked up a small terra cotta tablet bearing a Sanskrit legend which, with other old images lying about the place, was apparently obtained by ransacking the relic-chambers of ancient pagodas. This tablet, now in the British Museum, is of peculiar interest. Some years ago half dozen similar tablets were presented to that museum, which were found at Buddha Gayā; and the probable history of the specimen found at Pegu is that it was brought from Gayā as part of the collection of relics procured by the Mission sent thither by king Dhammachēti in the latter half of the 15th Century, A. D., and deposited in the relic-chamber of some pagoda erected after their return. The legend is said to be the formula of the "three refuges." The general character of the tablet, independently of the inscription on it, is distinctly Indian.³¹

The eastern face of Pegu was visited on the 5th January. The Shwēmōdō Pagoda, said to contain two hairs of Gautama Buddha enshrined by Mahāsāla and Chūlasāla, sons of Piṇḍakamahāsēthi of Zaungtū, was being re-gilt under the supervision of its trustees. The Pagoda was last repaired by Bōdōp'ayā, about a hundred years ago, and a broken inscription recording this meritorious act is lying on the Pagoda platform. There is also an ancient brass bell said to have been presented by Byinnyā Dalā after his conquest of Avā in 1752 A. D.³²

Like the Shwēdagōn Pagoda at Rangoon, the Shwēmōdō is a Buddhist shrine of great sanctity. Successive kings of Burma and Pegu lavished their treasures on it in repairing and enlarging it. When originally built, it was only 75 feet high, but as it now stands, it is about 288 feet high, and about 1,350 feet in circumference at the base.

A little to the north-east of the Shwēmōdō is a small hill, fabled to have been the resting-place of two *hansa* birds, when the region about Pegu was under the sea. At the foot of this hill are two octagonal pillars of fine granite. The length of one is about 11 feet and that of the other is about 5. They bear no inscriptions, but a tradition is current that they were erected by *kulā*, i. e., foreign or Indian, merchants, who subsequently claimed the country as their own by virtue of pre-occupation, and that they were driven out by a Talaing prince. However, the true history of the pillars appears to be that, like a similar granite pillar in the ancient town of Tenasserim (Taninḍāyī) in the Mergui District, they were erected when Rāmaññadēsa was subject to Siamese rule, to mark the centre of the ancient city of Hamsāvati, and that most probably human beings were buried alive below the pillars, in the belief that the spirits of the deceased would keep an unremitting watch over the city.

A good panoramic view of Pegu and its suburbs is obtained from the Shwēaungyō Pagoda, which is situated at the south-east corner of the city walls. At about 700 yards from the southern face is Jētūvati, the encampment of Alompra, who beleaguered Pegu in 1757 A. D. Within the walls are visible the sites of the palaces of the great kings of Hamsāvati, such as

³⁰ Plate LIV. of *The Cave Temples of India*, by Fergusson and Burgess.

³¹ [The legend of the Pegu specimen is by itself mostly illegible, but a nearly identical specimen from Gayā at the British Museum the inscription is legible enough. It probably is some well-known formula, but it is not that of the "three refuges." There must either have been some reciprocity in the production of these votive tablets between Gayā and other places whence pilgrims came, or the pilgrims must have induced the local artists to copy inscriptions on their particular gifts in their own various tongues, because among the British Museum specimens is one which has what appear to be imitations of the *Kyauksā* characters of Burma, much resembling those on the Tenasserim medals figured by Phayre in the *International Numismata Orientalia*, Vol. III., Plates III. and IV., and another has illegible imitation characters on it of some tongue unknown to the artist who made it. Sir Alexander Cunningham has figured some of these tablets, which he calls seals, in his new book, *Mahabodhi*, Plate XXIV. These are apparently from his own collection of finds at Buddha Gayā, and there are other good samples at the South Kensington Museum, Indian Section, which are wrongly labelled there for the most part.—ED.]

³² It is said that the Shwēdagōn was raised to its present height in the last century by the Burmese in order to overtop the Shwēmōdō of the Talaings.

Hanbawadi S'inbyayin known to European writers as Branginoco,³³ Yazadarit,³⁴ and Dhammachêti. Traces of a double wall and moat are also seen, the walls being in good condition.

I have now traversed through the whole of the ancient Talaing Kingdom of Râmaññadêsa proper. The stone inscriptions are the chief of many objects of archæological value and should, if practicable, for the purpose of preservation, be removed to the Phayre Museum at Rangoon. In the case, however, of inscriptions, whose size and weight render their removal to Rangoon unadvisable, they should be collected at some convenient and central place and arrangements should be made to protect them from the weather. If they remain *in situ* they are liable to become defaced or weather-worn. Manuscripts of historical interest are extremely scarce; the architectural structures have in too many cases been renovated in the modern style; and the religious buildings worthy of conservation are being looked after by the people. No true *stûpas* or topes, like those of India, were met with, and the enquiries instituted failed to elicit any information regarding the existence of any records, lithic or otherwise, in the Aśoka character. The absence of any records in this character, both in Râmaññadêsa and at Pagàn, whither it is supposed the Burmese conquerors removed their spoils of war, throws considerable doubt on the authenticity of the account relating to the mission of Sôpa and Uttara at the conclusion of the Third Council, as stated in the Mahāvamsa and other Buddhist books. The question, however, may be considered to be an open one, until the information afforded by Talaing, Cambodian, and Siamese records, shall have helped its solution.

³³ ["Branginoco" represents the title Bayin Naung, perhaps then pronounced Bhurin Nông. It is spelt Bhuran Nôñ.—ED.]

³⁴ [This word *Yazadarit* is spelt *Rājādīrāj* and seems to clearly equal *Rājādhirāja*. I may as well note that *Yōzā-di-badi*, *Narā-di-badi*, *Sēnā-di-badi*, and similar titles in books about Burma are simply the familiar *Rājādhipati*, *Narādhipati*, *Sēnādhipati*, etc., in disguise. The *Di-ba-di* title, which has puzzled so many writers, is really always the latter part of some title, which includes the term *adhipati*, 'ruler, regent, king,' and means that the holder called himself 'overlord of ———,' whatever the first part of the word might mean.—ED.]

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